

The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland

*Proceedings of the Meetings held in Nine-
teen Hundred Fifteen at Baltimore, Md.,
and Philadelphia, Pa.* :: :: ::

NUMBER 13

2694

PRICE FIFTY CENTS

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¹ The address, Changing Conceptions in History, delivered at the Philadelphia meeting in November, by Professor D. C. Munro, of Princeton, has appeared in the *History Teachers' Magazine*, to which readers are referred for an unusually stimulating discussion.

RECENT CHANGES IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

BY R. W. KELSEY

HAVERFORD COLLEGE, HAVERFORD, PA.

According to the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1913, the Middle States and Maryland are blessed with ninety-seven universities, colleges and schools of technology. Delaware maintains only one college, New Jersey has six, Maryland thirteen, New York thirty-five, while Pennsylvania has forty-two.

These ninety-seven institutions were addressed by the writer of this paper in order to secure the information set forth below. Seventeen of the ninety-seven are affiliated with the Roman Catholic Church and from these only two replies were received. From the other eighty institutions fifty replies were received—a resplendent record, showing that among other changes in the History teaching profession there is a vast change for the better in the fine art of answering questionnaires.

The following is the list of questions that was sent out:

1. Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize the more recent periods of history?
2. Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize those developments in the past that bear upon the problems of the present?
3. Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize the economic and social phases of history?
4. Is more attention given to local history than formerly?
5. As to the teaching of history, please underline in the following list the methods that are increasingly used and cross out those that are used less than formerly: lectures; text-books; syllabus; source materials; current literature; library facilities in general; visualizing aids; local illustrative material (e.g., museums, landmarks, etc.).

6. What general changes in the curriculum that affect the History Department?
7. What changes of entrance requirements in History?
8. What changes not within the scope of the above questions?
9. What changes seem desirable for the near future?

Several of the replies received were inconclusive or incomplete so that the tabulation of the result shows a variation in the number of answers received for the various questions.

1. *Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize the more recent periods of history?*

The answers to the first question were entirely conclusive. Only one institution failed to answer under this heading. Three reported no change. Forty-eight answered that there *was* an increasing tendency to emphasize the more recent periods of history. Several stated that still greater progress in this direction is desirable. Only three institutions reported the creation of new courses in Ancient History, and one of the three stated that such creation was the visible result of a subtle creative energy emanating from the departments of Greek and Latin.

2. *Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize those developments in the past that bear upon the problems of the present?*

The answers to the second question were even more conclusive. Out of fifty-two institutions sending replies, fifty reported an increasing tendency to emphasize those developments in the past that bear upon the problems of the present. Only two colleges reported no change in this particular, and both of them specified that there had been no such change because there had always been a great tendency in that direction. Several stated that the present war in Europe had increased this tendency.

3. *Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize the economic and social phases of history?*

Increasing emphasis upon the economic and social phases of history was also clearly indicated by affirmative replies from forty-seven institutions. Several of them suggested that this tendency should be carried still further, and one college stated that "military history is being more and more omitted and economic and industrial history substituted therefor." Very naturally the United States Academy at West Point reported that emphasis is rather placed

on "international relations and military affairs." One college reminded teachers of history that the tendency toward economic and social history might be carried too far, and that the history of the evolution of the State would always be of prime and central importance.

4. *Is more attention given to local history than formerly?*

Thirteen institutions reported more attention given to local history, while thirty-seven could detect no change in that direction. Several stated that no place is found for local history in college courses excepting obviously American History, and even in this field the study seems to be largely carried on in graduate courses and in the preparation of theses.

5. *As to the teaching of history, please underline in the following list the methods that are increasingly used and cross out those that are used less than formerly: lectures; text-books; syllabus; source materials; current literature; library facilities in general; visualizing aids; local illustrative material (e.g., museums, landmarks, etc.).*

In question five on methods of teaching came the rub. As to the use of lectures, text-books and syllabi the replies were sufficiently seasoned with variety. Twenty voted that lectures are increasingly used, while twelve use them less than formerly. As to the increasing use of text-books eleven answered affirmatively and nineteen in the negative, and similarly as to syllabi eighteen were affirmative and fifteen negative. Such diversity of views evidently indicates a very open question. However, there were several facts and statements in the replies that stood out prominently. In some of the largest institutions there seems to be a reaction against laying too much stress on the lecture, and several of them are balancing this off with an increased use of the text-book. One college characterized the "purely lecture method as inadequate and out-of-date at the best, and at the worst a sham and a bluff on the part of the instructor to save the time required for proper preparation."

One large university reported a decreasing use of the syllabus, while another reported it "about gone."

As to the use of sources there was a good degree of unanimity among those that indicated any change at all. Thirty-three institutions use them increasingly while four use them less than formerly. One of the latter still believes in them theoretically, but has

not found a satisfactory method of using them to advantage. The University of Rochester reported as follows: "Source materials have been much over-worked and while still used there is something of a reaction against their all-importance of a short while ago."

The replies were thirty-three to two to the effect that current literature is increasingly used, although several warned that this method might be overdone, especially in the use of newspapers.

As to the use of the general library facilities only one dared confess to a falling away in this virtue while thirty-nine vowed that progress was being made in this direction.

The last two questions under method asked about the use of visualizing aids and of local illustrative material such as historic landmarks and the contents of historical museums. As to the increasing use of visualizing aids in the class room thirty-one answered in the affirmative and five in the negative. Several specified that the use of maps was especially in the ascendancy. The use of local illustrative, material such as may be found outside the class-room, does not seem to be increasing so generally, as was indicated by fifteen affirmative replies against eleven negative.

Several avowed serious intentions of still further increasing the use of visualizing aids both inside and outside the class-room, but one college declared that such things were "primarily methods for the secondary schools."

On an average under each of the eight subdivisions on the changes of teaching-method, one-third of the institutions indicated that no change at all had been made in recent years.

6. What general changes in the curriculum that affect the History Department?

The replies to question six were encouraging with slight exception. In one or two cases there had been a log-rolling campaign in changing the curriculum and the History Department had come out second best. However, in twelve cases out of the fourteen that reported changes, history had been given a more important place. In some cases it had been made a required subject in a system of electives more or less free. In others a group system had been established in which history is recognized as one of the coordinate major subjects.

The changes made at the University of Pennsylvania in this respect are interesting and important, and may serve as an example

to some who contemplate the arrangement or rearrangement of a grouping system. The following extracts are from the kind and full reply received from that institution: "Formerly all college and Wharton students were required to take two units of History, there being a choice between some five courses, three European and two American. Now the college students have a group system to choose from. One of the six groups which they must take is composed of History, Economics and Philosophy. They may choose three units in each of two of these subjects or six units in any one, to meet conditions of required work in this group. They may also make History a major subject by taking nine units of work under the direction of the History Department (although not necessarily all in History) and they may also elect courses in History out of eighteen units which are left free for election by college students. For the Wharton School students five units of History are required. Three of these are selected from a group of seven introductory courses. The two additional units are free electives."

7. What changes of entrance requirements in History?

The only changes of significance in entrance requirements are indicated by replies from three institutions that now accept a course in Modern History. In this matter the History Department at Temple University sees "indications of a willingness on the part of the colleges to accept any courses which the high schools teach well." Perhaps the writer may be allowed to add a prophecy that in the matter of Modern History or any other of the rearranged courses suggested by the Committee of Five the colleges will readily come to accept whatever proves acceptable to the High Schools, just as occurred earlier when the recommendations of the Committee of Seven came into effect.

8. What changes not within the scope of the above questions?

Questions eight and nine were drag-net questions to catch stray items that had not been successfully angled for in the more specific questions. The former asked about miscellaneous changes not accounted for by the previous questions. The replies were as miscellaneous as could be desired, and poured in somewhat as follows: More students are taking history than ever before and increasing numbers are majoring in it; we are developing courses of intensive study on shorter periods or more limited phases of history; we have added a course partially devoted to methods of teaching his-

tory; "growing prevalence of the introductory course in European history;" the division of large courses into quiz sections at the University of Pennsylvania; the great success of the preceptorial method at Princeton and in the graduate courses of the same institution the addition of "a large number of reading courses designed to give graduate students a wider acquaintance with the historical literature of all the great periods of history."

These items are perforce stated briefly in this paper. Several of them merit careful thought and full discussion.

9. *What changes seem desirable for the near future?*

The last question was a challenge: "What changes seem desirable for the near future?" Nor were those challenged slow in taking up the gauntlet: We need more library facilities. We need a stereopticon, and more maps, and other visualizing aids. We need more instructors and assistants in order to divide large courses and handle the library and quiz work properly. We need more adequate textbooks, adapted to college courses, but not of encyclopedic proportions. We need courses in methods of teaching history. We need courses that give more attention to colonial empires, to the newly rising countries east and west, and to the growth of international relations.

Two replies urged the need of courses adapted to the students' present or prospective environment and needs, as, for example, courses in the history of agriculture, of industry, of architecture, and of localities in their relation to the nation or the world.

From Princeton came the following expression: "We need to give a good deal more attention to the process of connecting great historical movements and past historical periods with present movements and conditions; the failure to do this seems to be the most evident lack in American teaching."

A summary of needs stated by Hunter College will serve well to close this digest of the changes deemed desirable for the near future: "Greater emphasis on industrial and social evolution with a clear recognition of the evolutionary processes in society; less ground covered, fewer facts learned to be quickly forgotten and more strict accountability for relations between opinions and facts; cultivation of the historical sense and the reasoning faculty, and more respect for documentary evidence to which all statements must be traced."

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The task of summarizing the data brought together in this investigation was rendered easy for the writer by two facts that stood out crystal clear in the answers to his questionnaire. The first fact was the conclusive unanimity as to the advent of the New History, or Socialized History. The second fact was the absolute lack of unanimity as to how History should be taught. Other problems galore were mentioned, more or less closely connected with these two, but these were written everywhere by everybody as fundamental.

We teachers of history represent a department of study so new to the curriculum that in the preparation of this little paper the writer received data from three times as many professors of history as there were in all the universities and colleges of the United States thirty years ago. Yet to-day history is given an ever larger place in all curricula and in the choice of students everywhere. And we see before our eyes a vast change taking place in the type of history that is being taught. Such a fundamental and sweeping change always needs to be guided and controlled. Another fundamental change, this one in the methods of teaching the subject, cries aloud its approach in the diversity of views expressed on that topic. Such an imminent change demands the closest cooperative counsel of our guild.

One college professor, whose replies to the above questions betokened a major prophet, uttered this inspired saying: "We all work too disjointedly. We need better general agreement as to standards and closer adherence to those standards. If I knew with whom to agree, I for one should agree right speedily."

With whom then shall we agree and who shall set a standard for us? Not indeed the faithful ones who provided data for this paper, for half of them disagreed with the other half on half of the questions submitted. Not indeed those who may discuss the subject in this meeting, for nobody ever agrees with anybody else when we discuss college history in the meetings of this Association. Why should not a committee be appointed to deal with this whole question? History in the Schools has had its Committee of Five and Committee of Seven and Committee of Eight, and the end is not yet.

Unless the discussion of this question develops a plan more practicable the writer of this paper will propose in the business session to-morrow the appointment of a Committee on the Teaching of History in the Universities and Colleges. Such a committee would face a tangle of trials and a maze of dangerous by-paths. But it should be able in the end to blaze a trail for us in the general direction of better efficiency and greater service, and to call out to us at last: "This is the true way, walk ye in it."

Then, however short we might fall of the goal of our ideals, we could at least assure ourselves that we had made an honest effort, and perchance convince others that we take our profession seriously.

SOME RECENT CHANGES IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

By D. C. KNOWLTON

CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

The more I have thought over my subject and browsed over the information which I have been able to secure from typical schools within our territory, the more difficult I have found my task. I take it that we are interested primarily in ascertaining just where we are as a body of teachers in the development of our subject, and that we would like to know just where we are tending. What changes can we discover which are common to a majority of the schools throughout our territory and what do these changes seem to indicate? Are we in practical agreement upon any fundamental points as to course, emphasis or methods? Have we attained to any common ground? Personally, I am very much interested in the answer to these questions, although I assume that my task is essentially a collection of data, and not so much a statement of tendencies. Following the example set by Professor Kelsey, however, I submitted as the closing question in my letter of inquiry, "What changes, if any, are contemplated for the near future?"

The following questionnaire was sent out to the schools from which information was desired:

1. What changes in the amount of time or attention given to the various fields of history? (i.e., Ancient, Modern, American, etc.).
2. What changes in methods of teaching history?
3. What changes of emphasis within the various fields? (i.e., emphasis on political, economic, social or other phases).
4. What general changes in the curriculum that affect the History Department?
5. What changes not within the scope of the above questions?
6. What changes, if any, are contemplated for the near future?

Let me say at the very outset that I believe we have made great strides toward attaining this common ground to which I have re-

ferred. Just at the present moment—to use a military figure in harmony with the times—it would seem that we are in the act of taking up a new position, which our leaders have pointed out to us, and, following our custom of the past, have set out to reach it by twos and threes rather than *en masse*. Perhaps it is as well that many are still holding the old line of intrenchments, thereby keeping open for us the line of retreat. Every new move in education means a long struggle against a variety of forces, and when we recall that it was considerably less than twenty years ago that the Committee of Seven gave us their epoch-making report, and a bare ten years ago that our New England brothers worked it out in syllabus form, and finally, that the report of the Committee of Five only appeared in 1911, it would appear that so far as the teaching of history is concerned, we are “making history” almost as fast as is the case in contemporary Europe.

In this connection the recent report of the Committee on the Revision of the New York State Syllabus of 1900 in History is of special interest. The New York State Syllabus of 1900 was the first successful effort on the part of the academic principals to settle that much vexed question of the number of fields to be taught. Comparatively little thought had been given to this in preparing earlier syllabi. As a result of their labors these were reduced to eight, and one-half year was allotted to each field, thus conforming with the report of the Committee of Seven. Five years later they definitely adopted the main features of the New England Syllabus as the basis of the history syllabus of 1905, which continued to be used until 1910. During this interval the stronger schools throughout the state adopted a maximum course in history of three years, but European history (i.e., medieval and modern), was so far elbowed out that it was abandoned in the Syllabus of 1910. In its place a two year course in modern European history was suggested as an alternative for ancient history and the history of Great Britain and Ireland, and it was so arranged as to serve as an introduction to American history. This new course, wherever introduced, made detailed work upon the colonial period unnecessary. This substitution immediately popularized European history. As against 373 answer papers submitted in 1909, the number rose to 1,676 in 1912, to 2,611 in 1913, and to 5,216 in 1914. It must not be inferred, however, that this was a general gain throughout

the state. In 1907 New York City adopted the regents examinations and in 1914 submitted 4,812 of the total number of papers written in European history; in other words, European history outside of New York City is on the list of electives and apparently the history of Great Britain and Ireland is maintaining its ground even where teachers would like to see a change of emphasis.

As early as 1909 this association had under discussion the question of definiteness in history teaching and Professor Robinson presented an admirable paper at the Philadelphia meeting which aroused a great deal of discussion. He suggested that a certain number of topics be agreed upon, and analyzed for the teachers, and that these should serve as the basis of the work done in the secondary schools and upon them the student should be examined for entrance to college. The New York Syllabus Revision Committee referred to above in its report points out that it was not long after the publication of the Regents' Syllabus of 1905 that this request or plea for definiteness was voiced by the teachers of that state; and the movement seems to have spread throughout the country as is attested by the action of the American Historical Association some two years ago, and its ratification by our own association in appointing a committee to work upon the European field. When, however, the revision committee of New York followed up this apparent tendency or desire by sending out a questionnaire last year (Feb., 1914), they were apparently not convinced by the replies which they received that the requests were "well advised." The reasons which they give for this conclusion are (1) that a selection of large topics had already been made in the Syllabus in connection with the general survey of each field; (2) publishers had prepared note-books in which the topics were carefully worked out; and (3) they were inclined to await the standardization proposed through the American Historical Association. They close their report on this point with the following statement: "The fact is that any history teacher to be successful must always select and develop his own topics. He must also work over those topics from year to year or select fresh ones. Unless he keeps his mind alert to connect the present with the past and thus vivify and vitalize the history he teaches, he might as well 'let the dead past bury its dead!'"

The New York State Syllabus was unique in two other particu-

lars from those which preceded it. (1) It prescribed a series of readings to accompany each block of history with definite references to book and page. Special topics, e.g., the War of 1812, had been suggested in the old days for intensive study and library work, and had been made the basis of a certain number of examination questions, but no special effort had hitherto been made to call for a definite course of reading. (2) Another departure was the proposed certification of history note-books. In both cases credit was to be given toward the Regents' examination.

Neither of these changes worked out to the satisfaction of those interested in good teaching. The aim in the one case was to encourage the broader viewpoint and to stimulate reading outside the pages of the text-book. In the other change they were perhaps following in a measure the precedent set in physics and chemistry, at the same time seeking to develop this same breadth of view by well-appointed note-books which should convey to the examiner some notion of the range of the work done and the actual performance of the class-room. The examiners found it very difficult to test the reading done, and in some cases the readings proposed threatened to displace reading courses which had already proved their value. There were cases, too, where the habit had already been formed of utilizing current literature and this practice was also interfered with by the new plan. A ruling of June, 1913, sought to harmonize these conflicting schemes by allowing teachers to submit their own courses of reading for approval and to claim the credit offered for supplementary work of this character. The minimum amount was fixed at 500 pages from at least six different authors. The experience with the certified note-book did not lead to so satisfactory an outcome, and the committee therefore recommended at their meeting last December the discontinuance of credits for note-book work and this action met with the approval of the examining board.

These actions of the New York Regents are of especial significance when we remember that through it the schools of the entire state are brought up to a certain standard through the uniform examinations.

A certain measure of uniformity is also possible in the State of Maryland, where they have a prescribed course of study for the public schools of the state, drawn up by the Department of

Education. This was revised only two years ago. Although they do not print any detailed syllabus covering the history courses, they insist upon American history and Civics in the fourth year of all high school courses, whether these courses be academic, commercial, or agricultural, and suggest history as an elective in the first and third years in all but one of the "well balanced" courses which they have worked out for the high school. For the first year they suggest either a course in English history or a study of the leading modern nations in which special emphasis shall be placed upon England. This replaces a course in general history including Greece and Rome. Either ancient or general history is suggested for the third year. Three and even four years of history are suggested in the commercial, agricultural and scientific courses. These include courses in Maryland history and in the history of agriculture. How far such courses are actually offered we cannot say in the absence of data.

The State of New Jersey offers an interesting comparison to the states just named in the courses of study for the high school outlined in its recent manual (April 1, 1913). Although the state is able to bring some pressure to bear upon the secondary schools through its appropriations of moneys, it has not definitely prescribed any uniform courses of study. In this manual it recognizes social science, including history, as one of the required five subjects upon which the high school course should be based, and allows from one to two years for the subject in all courses, United States history and Civics appearing in the fourth year of almost every course. Ancient history usually appears in the first year, wherever suggested, general history usually appears in the second, and English history in the third. The exceptions are the commercial, agricultural and technical courses suggested.

A committee of five, consisting of two high school teachers, two teachers from the state normal schools and a high school principal, acting in conjunction with the state department of education, has only recently completed a history syllabus for the secondary schools of the state. This is based upon the report of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Educational Association. It will probably soon be printed with such criticisms and changes as may be made by the teaching force of the state. In addition to the three courses in history suggested by the N. E. A., they have prepared

a syllabus for a separate course in civics and a syllabus in economics which covers the theory of economics in the first half year, and the chief economic problems of the present day in the second half year.

These syllabi, however, and these courses which we have mentioned do not, fortunately or unfortunately, represent actual practice, as has been already intimated. The situation reminds one very much of the color-bearer who, in the enthusiasm of the fight, became separated from his comrades and found himself far in advance of the main body of the troops. His comrades signalled frantically to him to fall back, but, resolutely facing the foe and pressing forward, he shouted, "Bring up the reserves." That is what some of us feel like saying to that great conservative force who are evidently desirous of strongly fortifying every inch of occupied territory before pressing forward for new and better results. These syllabi and courses of study are merely statements of positions to be occupied and the positions themselves are only in the hands of the valorous few. But I suppose something is attained if they form the basis of paper reports. (I need not remind you that we are living in the day of the paper manifesto.)

I suppose we ought not to pass by the great commonwealth of Pennsylvania, which has of late years shown itself so progressive in other matters. In the summer of 1912 it was my privilege to offer courses upon the teaching of history at the very geographical center of the state, and I found the teaching of history at that time in a very unsatisfactory condition as was evidenced by the reports which came to me from the teachers themselves and from one of the high school inspectors. Their last course of study, "prepared in response to a general demand by teachers, principals and superintendents," and in no particular mandatory in character, was published in 1909. It suggests the four blocks prescribed by the Committee of Seven and reprints by permission a series of outlines covering these which appeared originally in the Teachers' College Record for March, 1906. Recent reports from some of the stronger schools indicate an effort to introduce the courses recommended by the N. E. A. Committee. Three years of history, ancient, modern, including English, and American history and civics, have been made a feature of the curricula of some of these larger schools. The subject is still largely upon the elective basis. An-

cient history is more likely to be required than any other block. Although the teachers throughout the state seem to recognize the importance of American history, they are only devoting upon the average six months to it. One of the high school inspectors reports that they are just going through a testing period. "Experiments are being made in several schools with a view of making changes. I believe it will result in a complete modification of history courses."

In the city of Philadelphia, which like the rest of the state is allowed to pursue the even tenor of its way without any special control or guidance from the state, the situation is very interesting. In four out of the seven high schools the course in ancient history has been cut to a half year. Ancient history has been omitted altogether for commercial students in two of the girls' high schools. In two of the girls' high schools the history of the nineteenth century is being offered for a half year in the general course. The commercial students are taking a year's work in English history, apparently with some little emphasis upon the European background as it is the desire, on the part of some teachers, to make this a course in European history. The commercial courses are offering less history than heretofore. Formerly three or four years of history were given in this course; in some schools it has already been cut to two years, and my informant writes, "There is danger of its going farther." Some of the leading teachers in the city have been striving to evolve order out of the uncertainty which seems to prevail by elaborating syllabi. These place the emphasis upon contemporary history. The past is utilized primarily to explain the present. Community civics is also receiving more attention than in the past.

When we glance at the other great metropolitan center, New York City, we find, according to one authority, something like 19 out of the 23 high schools following the suggestions of the New York syllabus and offering the two year course in modern European history. Nine, at least, including such large schools as the Boys' High, De Witt Clinton, Wadleigh and Washington Irving, require three years of history in the general course, introducing it in the second year, and devote the first two years to European history, and the third or the last year of the course to American history and civics. In 17 high schools where three years of

history are required, in some cases the Ancient and English history are being taught, in others the European history. The matter has been left to the discretion of the particular school. The figures already quoted as to the number of papers submitted in the state examinations would indicate the extent to which the European history had displaced the English and ancient history. It is a rather significant fact that large college preparatory schools such as the Boys' High and De Witt Clinton seem to get along without offering any ancient history. In the two schools which are distinctly commercial in character more emphasis is being placed upon community civics and economics. A course in general history is given to all students in the second year of a three year course in the Commercial High School. This course, as it is presented, has a direct bearing upon commerce and business. Strong courses are given in both American history and civics. In the commercial courses recently planned for the other high schools where a demand existed for instruction along these lines, history has been made an elective throughout the course. This is perhaps equivalent to the Philadelphia tendency to eliminate it. On the other hand, it was thought by the framers of this new course that the course should be as elastic as possible, and that with wise supervision the various subjects which were placed upon the elective list would maintain their proper places in the curriculum. English history is suggested for the second year, American history and civics for the third, and commercial history and economics for the fourth year. It should be borne in mind that a large percentage of these students subsequently enter college or technical and professional schools.

Some difficulty has been experienced in providing the students in these new courses with suitable text-books adapted to the time allotments prescribed for each period. So far as is known, the courses referred to in community civics have been carefully elaborated and developed only in the High School of Commerce and in the Julia Richman High School for girls. In the latter the course is based largely upon the Independent. The high school principals are at present at work upon a new course of study. They are talking of making American history and civics a prescribed subject in the fourth year of all courses and the other histories entirely elective. This would be in the nature of a retrograde movement from the standpoint of the present status of the subject in New

York City and would undo much of the work of the past ten years.

Thus far we have considered these changes, taking each state as a unit rather than the individual school, with summaries of recent innovations in the two great metropolitan centers, New York and Philadelphia. Although this gives us a broad comprehensive survey of our territory as a whole, it ignores the work of private schools and does not fairly represent the sort of problem which faces the individual school or teacher and the solutions which are under way. A questionnaire sent out to every school would be the only means of revealing the scope of these efforts with the results accomplished, and our data are derived only from various points in the field.

There is no question but that the schools in and about New York City, both public and private, are swayed to a great extent by the attitude of the metropolis. Our New York Conference would seem to indicate this. Consideration seems to have been given in this area to the question of instruction in citizenship. The whole suburban district has felt the demand for some sort of a preparation for citizenship on the part of the school. This work has naturally fallen to the department of history, and schools are even going so far as to devise courses in "political science" for want of a better name. In one school where this name has been resurrected the students are expected to take a hurried dash through about four good-sized texts during the year with supplementary readings in magazines and debates on current problems. The city of Newark is offering in two of its four high schools a half year prescribed course in community civics in addition to the work in civics in connection with American history; and the teachers have prepared a series of pamphlets describing various phases of the city's government which have been printed by the Board of Education. A history course especially adapted to the needs of the student is finding its way into the commercial courses in this same region. The suburban schools around New York are recognizing through their history courses the fact that many of the pupils are no longer candidates for college entrance. Typical examples would be Montclair and East Orange, N. J. The private school, wherever it is found, feels bound to satisfy the college, as so large a proportion of its students are headed in this direction.

The methods in vogue in individual schools have changed some-

what in recent years. A greater use is being made of illustrative material, e.g., pictures, lantern slides and stereoscopic views; some attention, even though it may not be considered adequate, is being given to correlation, especially between English and history. One school reports an effort to introduce history in connection with the study of modern language and to correlate the work in the two branches. Reading courses have been planned, in one case—that of the Central High School of Newark—in collaboration with the English department where credit is given in both subjects for the supplementary work accomplished. Again, the topical method seems to be coming more and more into favor, i.e., the consideration in detail of a few large topics. Influences from above are still dominating in some quarters, preventing teachers from making desired changes. History is securing a greater time allowance in individual schools. Some schools, for example, report history throughout the four years and an allowance of a generous number of periods per week. These are but scattered observations gleaned hither and yon, and should therefore neither arouse our hopes too high or make our outlook for the future too pessimistic.

Finally, if we cannot assert actual changes in the teaching of our subject extending over a wide field, we can at least assert strong tendencies along at least five different lines in the territory included within the scope of our association. (1) There is the effort to introduce modern European history. Where one year courses are offered in general history they are planned to lay emphasis upon the present. A straw indicative of the direction of the breeze is a recent letter and report from Mr. Ashley, whose inquiries you have perhaps answered or seen in print in the March number of the History Teachers' Magazine. Out of 68 schools reporting from the East, which of course includes New England, in one-seventh 10% or more of the students were pursuing the study of European history three years; in two-sevenths over 40% were pursuing it for two years. To secure the necessary time the ancient history courses are in many cases being cut down or eliminated, but college entrance conditions still maintain it in a prominent place in the curriculum. In connection with this effort to find a place for modern European history there is everywhere to be noted an effort to stress current history or current topics, often through the use of some well-known periodical such as the Independent, the Literary

Digest or the Outlook. These magazines are often used in the American history, economics and civics classes rather than in the general history classes.

(2) The second tendency is to "humanize the history" (the phrase is my own), that is to emphasize the life and activities of the people, the economic and social phases of their development. A syllabus which was recently placed in my hands, to which I have already alluded in connection with the Philadelphia situation, illustrates this. History has come to mean much more than a mere narrative of interesting events. It presents rather a series of problems for the student to interpret, with special reference to the life of the present.

(3) Again there is to be noted the greater use of the library through prescribed courses of reading; and supplementary work with books, magazines and clippings is an important innovation which is steadily gaining ground.

(4) Again, there is to be noted the emphasis upon civics and economics. Courses are being introduced in community civics, especially in the early years of the high school course; and economics is coming more and more to be recognized as an important secondary school subject.

(5) Finally, there is the move toward definiteness represented by the existence of our own committee, and the shaping and use of syllabi in greater numbers.

On the other hand, we have every variety of course—almost as many as the famous Heinz—but there is a manifest desire to adapt the work to the particular need of the school or locality, and it would seem, on the face of it, as though the college incubus—if it can be termed such—was weighing less heavily upon the teaching force of the secondary school. With the modern demand for efficiency and standardization it would seem as though we should get together. Mr. Ashley, in the letter referred to, insists that his questionnaire proves conclusively for the country as a whole that the report of the Committee of Five, so far as European history is concerned, does not meet the demands of the teachers. Be that as it may, for our own particular section some of us are inclined to sympathize with him in his lament that "they will go ahead with twenty different courses unless we can get together soon on something that fits our general needs." Would not the

status of our subject be improved by greater uniformity as to courses, methods, in short in all that is involved in the successful presentation of our subject?

As I bring this paper to a close I have some misgivings as to whether I have not wandered somewhat from my subject and am reminded of the man who was boiling a pot of coffee and frying some bacon on a little fire he had made on the prairie. The fire caught the grass of the prairie, and the man had to keep the skillet over the blazing grass. By the time he had his bacon done he was two miles away from his pot of coffee. I have this consolation, at any rate, that I shall not prove to be the first to offend in this particular.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE CHANGES IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS FROM 1910 TO 1915

BY E. E. GILTNER

NEW YORK TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS

The purpose of this paper is to point out such changes as have been discovered rather than to evaluate, interpret, or criticise them. This report is based on data given in answer to a questionnaire which was sent to one hundred and fifty city and county school systems. Answers were received from about one-third. A number of these answers were quite incomplete, so that for most points the statements are based on some thirty-three cases. These sample a population of about nine millions, distributed in rural, small town and city communities of the Middle States and Maryland.

Reports came from: (Census 1910)

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| (1) Large city systems (above 200,000) representing approximately | 8,000,000 |
| (2) Small towns and cities (under 200,000) representing approximately | 600,000 |
| (3) Rural units (counties) representing approximately | 400,000 |
| (4) Special schools (within same population units) | |

Total 9,000,000

Two and even three reports from different schools of the larger communities have been used so as to somewhat weight the cases. To illustrate, a report on the procedure in Philadelphia or Pittsburgh should weigh more in the summary than a report from Rome, N. Y., with its population of twenty thousand.

While one cannot always judge correctly of the care and fairness exercised in replying to questionnaires which so frequently claim the time and energy of school people nowadays, may I record here my conviction of the reliability of the data which came to me. Two-thirds of those addressed did not answer at all, some

of these frankly stating that they lacked time, or that data for correct and reliable answers were not at hand. Among those received there were very few items which suggested that the informant was even unconsciously making a case for history. One wrote, "Our history course is our most satisfactory one." Another, "Our work has not materially changed."

All tendencies indicated in this report should be carefully checked up by our various experiences. The instruments of science are observation and experience. These observations came from a broad field, have been made by several observers, and present phenomena difficult of measurement. And in addition the units of measure are indefinite.

The following is an attempt to summarize the answers sent in response to the questionnaire given above. The total number of cases reporting is thirty-three.

I. Subject-matter:

1. As to program followed:

a. The text-book—14 cases report that they follow a text-book now, and 14 that they did so in 1910. Montgomery's text holds its own, while Barnes gives way to Mace, Gordy and Thwaites and Kendall.

b. Concerning the report of the Committee of Eight, we find that six centers of the thirty-three follow its course of study wholly or in part, in 1915.

c. State Course of Study: 8 cases report that they were directed somewhat by the State Course of Study in 1910, while 12 follow it to some extent in 1915.

d. County Course of Study: In 1910, 5 communities were following this course; 2 of these now follow a city syllabus, and 2 are following the County Course.

e. City Syllabus: 16 followed such a guide in 1910, and 18 do so now, which seems to indicate that two communities that were rural in 1910 have taken on the city form of organization.

f. Individual School Course: 4 report that they followed an individual school course in 1910, while 8 are doing so in 1915. This differentiation of program is worthy of notice.

2. Local History:

Twenty-three of the thirty-three communities teach local history; 7 teach it in one grade only; 9 teach it in two grades; 1 teaches

it in three grades; 2 teach it in four grades; 1 teaches it in five grades; 1 teaches it in six grades; 2 teach it in all grades.

It may be noted that two-thirds of those teaching local history do not give it in more than two grades. It seems to be given most often in grades four and eight. In 2 cases it is given in grade 1; in 2 cases it is given in grade 2; in 7 cases it is given in grade 3; in 13 cases it is given in grade 4; in 9 cases it is given in grade 5; in 7 cases it is given in grade 6; in 9 cases it is given in grade 7; in 13 cases it is given in grade 8.

We cannot help looking with a question upon the attempt to give any definite program of Local History in each of the eight grades.

Local history, it is discovered, may mean city events, county events, state events, community events, and the biography of local characters. Topics vary with supervisors and with teachers. The topics which were reported specifically include, "Indians of Early Days," "The Pioneers of the Locality," "Events of the Revolutionary War Connected With Local Landmarks," "Current Events," and "Events Connected With Local Geography."

The amount of this work is variously expressed: to illustrate—"one period a week in grades four, five and six," "ten to fifteen lessons in grade eight," "small amount," "incidental," "depends upon teacher's knowledge."

3. What types of topics have you added? Illustrate:

There is much variety in these replies. Among them, Biography leads with five cases; European History and Current History follow with four cases each. Industrial History topics have been added in three cases, while each of the following has been added in one community: local history, economic history, social movements, characteristic marks of different civilizations. Commerce, emigration, the conservation problems, the development of science, art, literature, landmarks, history of the local school, the present European war, the Mexican situation, and "Franklin Hiring Wagons," instead of "Braddock's Expedition."

4. What types of topics have you discarded? Illustrate:

Many fewer types of topics were reported as discarded. Only ten report that any topics have been dropped. In general, the military phases of our national history seem coming to be considered as having less value than formerly. Four communities are

discarding "war topics," one is giving up "the French and Indian Wars, except in the most general aspects," another "all battles, and nearly all campaigns," and still another "details of battles."

Two communities are discarding "such topics as cannot be related to present life and present day public affairs." Again, "topics that entail many dates" are considered unprofitable. Finally, such topics as "Ward Officials" have been omitted, presumably in cities in which the ward system has been superseded.

5. New emphasis and new interpretations:

The answers show that there is very generally a tendency to put new emphasis on certain types of facts, and to give new interpretations to certain events and groups of facts, which have commonly been taught. The principles which govern the departures in the selection and manner of treatment of topics, and determine the placing of new emphasis are indicated as follows:

Twenty-two (two-thirds of the total) are emphasizing the social ideals; 22 emphasize the industrial phases; 19 emphasize the economic; 16 emphasize the biographical; 9 emphasize the dramatic; 8 emphasize the political.

The meaning of new interpretations given to familiar events was in no case made definite and concrete in the answers.

II. *Time devoted to History (and Civics):*

The reports and computation show that history work is being extended throughout the eight grades, and that somewhat more time is being given to this subject. This should be gratifying to us when we remember that new subjects are being introduced, and that supervisors and special teachers are developing such subjects as music, drawing, physical training and manual training.

Twenty-five reports touched this phase of the subject.

Grade.	1910.	1915.		Gain.
1	5	5 giving history.....		0
2	4	5 " "		1
3	6	8 " "		2
4	13	13 " "		0
5	20	21 " "		1
6	23	23 " "		0
7	25	25 " "		0
8	25	25 " "		0

Minutes per week devoted to history:

Grade.	1910.				1915.				Gain.
1—	24 min.	average	in	5 cases—	34 min.	average	in	5 cases..	10
2—	35	"	"	4 " —	36	"	"	5 " ..	1
3—	47	"	"	6 " —	54	"	"	8 " ..	7
4—	51	"	"	13 " —	57	"	"	13 " ..	6
5—	95	"	"	20 " —	100	"	"	21 " ..	5
6—	123	"	"	23 " —	127	"	"	23 " ..	4
7—	156	"	"	25 " —	177	"	"	25 " ..	21
8—	163	"	"	25 " —	169	"	"	25 " ..	6

In every grade the time given to history has increased during the last five years. This increase varies from one minute in the second grade to 21 minutes per week in the seventh grade. The average increase per grade is 7.5 minutes in a weekly schedule of not more than 1,500 minutes.

III. *Helps used (other than literary):*

There appears to be a gratifying increase in the use of helps. Let me say that the "reference books" item was put in here to see if it was possible to get a report from some system that does not use such a help. The replies show that in 1915 every case reporting was using the reference book, but that in 1910 only two-thirds were using it.

	1910.				1915.				Increase.
Historical maps	used	in	16 cases—	and in	26 cases.....	10			
Geographical maps	"	"	22 " —	"	" 29 "	7			
Outline maps	"	"	12 " —	"	" 22 "	10			
Charts	"	"	12 " —	"	" 20 "	8			
Pictures	"	"	18 " —	"	" 27 "	9			
Scrapbooks	"	"	3 " —	"	" 10 "	7			
Outline notebooks	"	"	5 " —	"	" 11 "	6			
Models	"	"	2 " —	"	" 6 "	4			

Thus it appears that the helps more commonly introduced during the past five years are the reference book, historical and outline maps and pictures. But there are two or three times as many schools now using outline note-books, scrap-books and models as there were in 1910.

IV. *Literary helps:*

On this item, replies indicate a greater uniformity of practice. Briefly, about one-half used them in 1910, and practically

all are using them now. The one striking change to be noted here is the increased use of magazines and newspapers.

	1910.	1915.	Increase.
Libraries	21	30	9
Biographies	16	28	12
History Stories	19	29	10
Standard Histories	17	25	8
Magazines and Papers.....	12	30	18

V. *Teacher's Preparation:*

Teachers are making further preparation in a little more than one-half of the communities heard from. Five types of preparation were suggested. Replies indicate that during the past five years the teachers of 17 of the 33 communities have pursued courses of study which deal with the methods of teaching history; the teachers of 14 have taken courses in the subject matter of history; those of 16 have added to their qualifications by travel, and those of 22 have visited local institutions of government and developed new civic interests.

VI. *The Correlation of History:*

The quality of work done under the heading of history has been improved through the relation of situations studied in history to the student's life in his own community, and to neighborhood industries and other local phenomena. Thirty-two of the 33 reports indicate that historical incidents are being taught in relation to analogous situations that the pupils discover in current events. Twenty-seven relate the history work to local government. Twenty-four relate history with civics, the same number with geography. Twenty-two make use of local landmarks to add reality to the narrative. Seventeen relate it to local industries. Eleven make some use of museums. And ten attempt to connect history with vocations and vocational training.

VII. *Methods in Use:*

The data received under this caption is more difficult to organize. However, some tendencies are rather clearly marked in the answers.

a. *Assignment:* The assignments of the earlier period are characterized as "from the book" and "by pages." They were made "without explanation and directions for study." Assignments of the presented are said to be "topical," more time is devoted to

making them, they are "more definite." The principal topics are marked for special study. Sometimes an outline of the lesson is made. Children are given references on which they are to make reports to the class. Some are made "so as to entail research and independent study." One reports that assignments and study are integral parts of the recitation.

b. Preparation: The pupil's preparation is said to involve "less of memory and more of judgment activity." Pupils are being thrown more on their own responsibility in discovering and judging historical facts.

c. Question and answer recitation: It is suggested here that the tables are being turned, for whereas the teacher questioned and the pupil answered formerly, the pupils now question each other in recitation, and even dare to question the teacher. The tendency is for this old form of recitation, used now in reviews and in bringing out large points, to give way to the topic method, the problem method, and pupil discussion.

d. Topical recitation: This method seems to be in general use, and we have it pointed out that its merit lies in the clearness with which logical relations appear in this treatment of the subject.

e. Class exercises: Activity of this sort is gaining attention. The forms named are dramatization, debates, exercises in narration, and discussions of problems.

f. Tests: In 1910 oral and written memory tests for facts were held in grades 7 and 8.

In 1915 tests are held in upper grades only and less emphasis is being put upon them. The tests are reported as being more intelligent, the questions being of a nature to stimulate thought and to call for an interpretation of facts. One school reports that tests are held "in experimental work and in testing the course of study." Tests are given every month, every second month, or quarterly. One case reports an oral quiz every week, another that tests are used "in getting a summary." In no case are tests discontinued, but the form is coming to be more varied.

VIII. *Changes Made—Those considered of most importance:*

A generous response greeted this question, which suggests that there is a live interest in history instruction. Thirty-nine separate changes are mentioned under this head as having been made in the 33 systems. About half of these were reported from

two or more places. Each of the following have been made in four different systems:

1. Memory activity is giving way to "thinking."
2. History is taught so as to function in modern life.
3. Military topics and dates are being omitted.
4. More care is being exercised to present cause and effect relations of history.

In three cases each of the following have been made:

1. The value of European history has been realized and it is being taught.
2. A practical interest in civics has been developed.
3. An appreciation of the value of, and an interest in, primary sources are being stimulated.

There are eight changes, each of which have been made in two communities:

1. An added emphasis is being placed on the general idea of growth and change.
2. Added emphasis has been placed upon biography.
3. Upon modern history.
4. Upon local history.
5. Upon the social phase of history, and
6. Upon collateral reading.
7. The method of recitation has been improved.
8. More concrete material has been used.

Each of the following changes is noted in one community: Added emphasis on the economic phases of history; upon the industrial phases of history; upon institutional rather than political phases of history; upon "the abiding principles rather than the ephemeral phenomena of history"; and "on the fuller knowledge of the subject matter on the part of teachers." And again, "less emphasis is placed on facts and dates."

As to changes in subject matter: Stories from the sources have been introduced; pupils are studying local civic activities; pupils are studying local industries; the subject matter for each grade has been differentiated to a larger degree, and the program for each grade is therefore less extensive. In one case English history as such has been omitted, and the civilization of Europe is being brought out in the American institutions.

As to methods: Bibliographies and references are being more generally used; there is a more extensive use of pictures, maps, models, etc. A different, "less arbitrary," attitude toward textbooks is being encouraged. The "problem" method of teaching is being followed; biography is being used as a means of social study, and as a method of beginning the study of history. Excursions are being used. Individual activity is being encouraged by the use of more extensive topics. History has been put in the program for grades below the sixth.

Purpose: It is reported (1) that history is being taught "to develop national ideals"; and (2) that history is being taught "to develop international ideals rather than national ones."

IX. *The next steps or proposed changes:*

Replies on this point were rather numerous and suggestive. Thirty-seven separate changes are proposed, many of them quite in line with changes noted as having been recently made. About one-half of the number were mentioned two or three times.

In five cases the desirability of putting additional emphasis on social phases of history is noted. This stands out as the nearest approach to unanimity, 5 cases in 33.

Each of the following suggestions occurred three times: more emphasis on the industrial phases of history; greater emphasis on practical civics; a good and complete test that fits the course of study; a larger use of illustrative material to vitalize history work; and the use of European history stories in the fifth grade.

Twice it was reported as desirable to put more emphasis on the economic phase of our subject; to use the simpler history stories, and simpler biographies; that teachers become better prepared in a knowledge of their subject matter; and that we should have "better methods" of teaching.

Further suggestions were made by at least one correspondent as follows:

Added emphasis on a study of the history of our great industries; the growth of institutions; local history, the growth of the community; current events; geography as a background and factor in history; the description of institutions rather than a narrative of events; the elements of civilization rather than military events; and the development of a social science, the principles of which may serve as guides in future movements.

It is thought important that certain changes should be made in the subject matter. A study of the "incidence of taxation" should be added. There should be further omissions from the program, for example Greek and Roman history, and topics that lead to "sentimental attitudes." There should be a selection of a limited group of topics which shall be considered essential. There should be a more careful selection of topics from the standpoints of relative values and natural interests of the pupils. And finally "a better organization of the subject matter."

As to methods, it is suggested we should have: The use of current events as approaches to the past; a more frequent use of dramatization; more frequent use of debates; further correlation of history with biography; a fuller relating of the past to the present; greater enthusiasm on the part of the teacher; a better adaptation of the material to the ability and stages of development of the children; more care in training pupils in the use of bibliographies, references, etc.; more serious attention to instructing pupils in the intelligent use of a text-book; the real ancient life so taught that its analogy to the present may be more apparent; and "history taught so that it will contribute more to character building."

As to helps, we need: Better library facilities; more use of standard histories; more supplementary reading that is historical, but not text-books; moving pictures; more excursions; more map study that is intelligent.

Finally, one report suggests that we need more *time* for history. May we, as history teachers, ask ourselves whether it is not more important that we make better use of the time that is set apart for history?

DISCUSSION

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.: In two respects this meeting is a unique one. First, in the fact that the surveys which have been made cover a period of five years. History teachers during the last few years have answered many questionnaires on the teaching of their subject and many reports based upon such questionnaires have been published, but this is the first to my knowledge in which an effort has been made to note the progress during a term of years. Secondly, the meeting is significant because of the fact that the survey concerns the teaching of

history from the elementary schools all the way up to the college. We have had local studies on elementary history, on high school history, and occasionally some attempt at a survey of conditions in the colleges, but so far as I know, this Association has never attempted a survey covering a period of years and extending from the lowest grades up to the highest. In this connection, I wish to move a vote of thanks to the persons who have participated in this afternoon's program. The sending out of these questionnaires and the arrangement of the material obtained in response to them is a matter of great labor and one that should be recognized formally by this Association. I, therefore, move that this meeting extend a hearty vote of thanks to those who have presented the papers this afternoon.

P. L. KAYE, City College, Baltimore, Md.: A Committee of History Teachers in the secondary schools of Baltimore was appointed under the direction of the superintendents last January to examine and recommend text-books. As chairman of this committee, I suggested that a discussion of the courses of study in history be included in the work set before the committee. This suggestion was acceded to by the superintendent with some hesitation. In the committee the suggestion of a change in the course of study and in the requirements for graduation did not arouse much enthusiasm. In the Baltimore High Schools the four course schedule, beginning with Ancient History and ending with American, prevails. Only one year is required. The change discussed was how to bring about a greater emphasis on modern history. There was considerable hesitancy in the committee about expressing an opinion. And the opinion so far as it was expressed was divided as to the advisability of the change. Very few students take history in the second year, yet it did not seem proper to omit that course entirely; nor were the teachers of Ancient History willing to see that course mutilated. On the question of increasing the requirements for graduation there was almost equal trepidation, due apparently to the influence of the administrative officials, who oppose any disturbing of the status quo. The committee was able finally to agree to a recommendation that two years of history be required. I have since been informed that this recommendation will not meet with the approval of the superintendents. However, I am further informed that it is possible that the question may be opened again next year and another opportunity be given for history to get a hearing.

(In answer to a question by Dr. Bryan):

In the City College approximately two-thirds of the graduates have had more than one year of History. In the girls high schools the proportion is larger, perhaps three-quarters or four-fifths. In the college, history electives compete with foreign languages, mathematics and science.

(In answer to a question by Dr. Vincent):

The condition in the City College is due in part to the requirements for entrance to college. Thus, Johns Hopkins does not recognize European History, and we find few pupils taking that course.

THE LITERARY RECREATIONS OF THE HISTORICAL TEACHER

BY JOHN MARTIN VINCENT

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

I take it that I shall betray no trade secrets when I assume that the historical teacher occasionally desires a change of occupation. I suppose that one ought to feel that the pursuit of this profession is a sufficient reward in itself. If the business consisted only of the expansion of one's knowledge, its devotees might feel that inner glow of satisfaction which comes from the consciousness of moral rectitude, or of being correctly dressed. The business of imparting knowledge to the rising generation is, however, a different occupation. The procedure is often entertaining, very, but in view of our mental and physical makeup it is important for the proper conduct of this part of the profession that relaxation or a change of occupation shall from time to time take place. I have yet to meet that enthusiastic teacher who, after a day of weary work, imparting knowledge to the citizens of the next decade, rushes homeward with elastic step, shuts the door of her boudoir behind her, then, buried in her mottoed cushions, abandons herself for uncounted hours to the luxury of reading examination papers. Nor yet have I encountered a man, at his club, ostensibly reading the war news or the reviews of the day, who for fear of detection was concealing, between the pages of the *Century* or the *Saturday Evening Post*, eighth grade essays on Samuel Hancock, or high school reports on Alfred the Great. At certain times we are all willing to let the centuries march on by themselves without us, and in general to let bye-gones be bye-gones. What I have to say on this occasion consists of a suggestion or two as to the way in which that relaxation may be obtained. A list of possible changes of occupation would be presumptuous and unnecessary. For it is not my purpose to prescribe the kind of concerts which you shall attend, nor to indicate the theatrical performances peculiarly proper to the pedagogue. If you wish to employ the time in improving your facility as a teacher, let me refer you to the Pedagogical

Journals. These are always with us. If I do not look out my remarks may take the form of pedagogical advice, so let us talk about recreation.

I have occasionally expressed to the teachers of Baltimore the belief that a person was a better teacher when he had some little bit of investigation on his hands; that the contact with original material, from time to time, had a magic touch in transforming the teacher from a mere retailer of the tales of others into a living interpreter of the past. This has a somewhat forbidding, pedagogical sound, so that I deny at once that I ever said it, and we will approach the subject with the simple object in view of entertainment and relaxation.

I am convinced that the pursuit of a little first hand information may be not only profitable but entertaining as well. I think one is often hindered from taking up the investigation of a serious subject because of the fear of its size. The literature seems so vast, and the probabilities of getting the whole subject seem so remote that we are often pushed away before entering the doors of the investigation. Do not let me minimize the amount of literature in this world, and there will be more, yet it is often surprising how little is actually known in regard to some things about which a vast amount of literature has been produced. For example, the records of the Danish invasion of England can be compassed in the course of a day's reading. That does not include all of the facts that must be gathered from philology and other sciences, but it clearly shows that it is not a formidable piece of inquiry. In some of the counties on the eastern shore of England there are no records of the thing at all. If I should ask you to trace the passage of the Danes through Cambridgeshire, you would find no trace whatever. All of which goes to show that it is not absolutely necessary to be afraid of the subject of research. Upon numerous topics in English history it does not take long to know as much about them as John Richard Greene ever did. As one comes farther down in history, and the documentary material becomes more abundant, naturally any one subject requires longer inquiry and a greater amount of industry. But one ought not to be frightened by the contemplation of these things any more than that one should commit suicide because he reads that there are a million books in the Library of Congress. There are numerous

points all along in these great topics which need further elucidation. To be sure, it is upon these tasks that the historical students in our universities are engaged, yet I am not here to fight the battles of the doctors' dissertations. They will take care of themselves. The doctors do not seem to be upon the decline, nor does the monograph cease to mourn in the land. Judging by the number of pages which appear in the new dissertations, the monograph has become the multigraph. It is not the reading of monographs which I wish to offer tired history teachers as a means of recreation. If any of you are obliged to read these productions with the blue pencil in hand by way of preparing them for the press, you will not designate the occupation by that name. I merely wish to point out that there is a lot of good historical work to be done short of two hundred pages.

All of this long introduction is for the purpose of dissipating once more some of that awesome fear which seems to gather about the writing of history or historical research. When you think of what some great writers have accomplished it is awesome. When you think of what some of our younger investigators have accomplished, it is respectable, when not awful. But there is no need to think that historical seminaries are doing all of the history work which is to be done, or that many important things cannot be done outside of those sacred precincts. There are large numbers of interesting small parts, which, taken together, assist the understanding of larger subjects in historical research. The sum of these contributes to make up the total conclusion in regard to a period, or in regard to an episode in history. That much you will doubtless concede without discussion. What I wish to point out is how interesting some of these subjects are and what recreation they afford to a person who is fatigued by the dispensing of the ordinary well-known facts of political history. Take, for example, some things out of the common life of the past. We have some notions of the houses in which the past centuries lived, but most inadequate. The occupations of the people and how business was conducted are but feebly understood. The amusements of life; the forms in which time was passed; how people acted on Sunday as compared to other days. Or go further, if you like, and consider what people eat; what did they have in their gardens; what was the nature of the cooking; were the forms of cookery

artistic, or just English? Everybody knows that these questions are not so important as what happens to us after death, nevertheless, they are connected with vital matters in the economic or social history of the peoples whom we are considering.

It may be said that innumerable books have also been written upon this subject. That may be true, but the topic is not exhausted. For example numerous books by Mrs. Earle describe life in early American history, but she would doubtless herself be the last to assert that it was all there, for there were infinite varieties in the form of existence as there were in the forms of dress in colonial times. The Middle Ages have been depicted over and over again, both in word and in designs, nevertheless the picture is not necessarily complete. There are many interesting details that one might add, as to the life of the people, their poetry and their literature. Take an example from early modern history. Whenever you see a sister of charity, in the street, you think of the peculiar, white, linen head-dress which she wears. Was that invented for her, out of whole cloth, as it were, or was that simply a reproduction of one of the costumes of the times in which the order was founded? I will leave that to you to decide by studying contemporary pictures of that period. There is a psychological problem in either case.

Have you ever considered how many things may yet be found in the advertisements of old newspapers? This is not a new field of exploration. Both economists and historians have made use of newspapers to furnish data for their purposes. Mr. MacMasters' history of our colonial times gains a great deal from the study of these materials. But have you ever tried for yourself, other than by a hasty glimpse, to see what can be gleaned from the columns of a colonial journal?

It is not only the prices of goods which may be seen in the advertisements, or in the lists of commodities, but there is even priceless information in regard to the habits of life, and the way in which business operations were conducted. There is nothing in the way of local gossip, or anything approaching the state to which the country papers of today have descended in that respect. On the other hand, the reading matter consists of rather serious matters from England, or elsewhere abroad, published anywhere from six weeks to six months after the date of the occurrences

mentioned. This gives us an idea of the mental food upon which our ancestors were fed. Incidentally, they demonstrate the local structure by advertisements for runaway apprentices and runaway slaves. They tell you the times and days upon which the stage starts from Baltimore to Washington, and how long it takes by express and how long it takes by slow freight to reach the capital of our country. In the eighteenth century, it was an all day job, for which you got up early in the morning to go from Baltimore to Washington, even when you made use of the fast express. For the condition of the roads at that time, we have to consult the reports of travelers who passed over them, for the owners of the stage-line do not announce the state of the highways over which their coaches have to run. So, if we were to get the estimate of the life in the country of Maryland, at that period, we should have to take both the advertisements and all other things which contribute to it. Some of this material has been used, in a large way, by writers upon colonial history, but the conditions in Baltimore and the place where you live, or where you taught, or where your friends live at present, possibly have not been figured out. By comparisons of these items, by additions and subtractions in the route by which coaches traveled, by the reports of travelers, you may fix for yourself the conditions under which movement took place along the road, which may be interesting to you personally.

Again, one may search the advertisements to find out what books were on sale at a given period. One would not be safe in judging the intellectual condition of any period by the advertisements of books in the newspapers, but one can see what was offered to that public and judge the kind of things it was likely to have appropriated to itself. One may gather from the advertisements why this seems to the publishers a timely work. Some of these books may be found still in the original, and one may compare the statement of the advertisement with what appears to be the real value of the publication.

In recent days, we have come to a realization of how much the world is bound up, one part with another. With the flow of commerce checked, we clearly see upon what distant parts of the earth we depend for almost daily life. How far was that the case in the colonial period? Here, again, the advertisements come to our

assistance in the notices given of shipowners of cargoes just arrived, of storekeepers of consignments of goods they had just opened from China or the West Indies, or the other coasts of America. We would not be able to see how much these goods were desired, but we can obtain many most interesting clues. As to entertainment in this pursuit, I do not need to make mention of it. Indeed, as a mere source of recreation go to the advertising pages of colonial newspapers, and if that entertainment is pursued over a short period with close attention to the relationships of things, still greater satisfaction will be obtained by bringing out substantial contributions to our knowledge of early life and times.

Would it not be interesting, indeed, to know what city life in Baltimore was in the early part of the nineteenth century, for example. It would not be a very difficult matter to write a little paper on life in Baltimore in 1816. It might not be necessary to go into every detail as to the number of ships coming in, or as to the exact boundaries of the town, in a given year, but it would be interesting to gain an insight into the ideals of a colonial town of that size. From the newspapers, from almanacs, from directories, and other printed matter, it is still possible to find out a number of occupations, of the kinds of business, and the means by which the community gained its livelihood. Whether it was a place to which the country people flocked, after they had gained a competence, there lived in retirement on their capital. Was it a place of more or less leisurely habits of procedure, or was it full of ambitious business men who were pushing the newly incorporated town for all that it was worth? How many churches did it have and what kind were they? Was it the Episcopalians or was it the Scotch Covenanters who prevailed? If we should look about us to find the church buildings then occupied, we should not find many of them, for the streets that were then fashionable have been turned over to business, both wholesale and retail. The congregations have moved upward, consolidating into new organizations, so that we must depend very often upon the records, the newspapers, and other printed material to find out what the condition of the city was at that time. The numbers of schools is always an important question, and it is decidedly interesting to know whether these were sustained by public funds or by private enterprise. It is curious to see how numerous were the parochial schools which were sus-

tained by denominations which no longer consider that policy necessary. What were the rules about Sunday observance? You can find one answer in the law, but that is not complete until you find out the spirit in which the law was observed. Baltimore was always noted, at least until most recent times, for a very steady-going, church-attending population. The number of church buildings, as compared to the population, was always large.

The question arises as to whether, in early times, the church was attended with regularity and persistency, after the manner prescribed for the Pilgrim Fathers, for example. I will not say that a complete answer to that query may be found, but if you were able, would you not like to know just what that situation was? It might be necessary to go into family letters and descriptions not printed as well as descriptions of the passing travelers, to find out what kind of a town this was. The task has yet to be fully accomplished, notwithstanding all that has been written about early manners and countries. I think that the summing up of the life and occupations, the general spirit of a city in a given year, has not been made, even for Boston or New York. I might say, that the person who attempts to throw a little light on this subject, has not only an important but a most entertaining and recreating task.

Life on the farm, in early times, was so much more general that it has probably been described with greater fulness than any other. Yet there are many ways in which light can be thrown upon life in the country. The actual occupations of farm-life are not very different from one age to another, but the difficulties under which the duties were performed vary from time to time. We are told in a general way that very little currency passed from hand to hand, in the earlier periods. This is partly due to the fact that the farm was self-sustaining, producing many of the things which were necessary to life, right on the place. What we should like to know above every thing is just how much money a farmer actually saw or handled during a given year. Did the farm sustain the family or did it exist upon the books of the storekeeper? Did it live and move and have its being in the ledgers of the grocery or the general store at the four corners? The answer to that may often be found in those books themselves, which in numerous instances have been preserved, sometimes in the families concerned, and sometimes in public libraries.

Upon a certain farm in New Jersey, where I have been a visitor, almost since the days of my birth, there existed for about half a century, a corner store. This was located upon a cross-road, which was much frequented by travelers going north and south, and east and west. That store lasted until about 1855, when the railroads penetrated that region and removed the opportunities which might come to a country store on a line of through traffic. Fortunately, that farm has been in the possession of one family since the year 1800, and the day-books and ledgers of that business are still on the spot, almost complete in the order of succession. Counting with these an old ledger covering portions of the last decades of 1700, you have most interesting materials for the economic life of that region. What each family in that region bought, sold, and brought to the store to be traded in can be computed. The pounds of tea, the quarts of molasses, the jugs of stimulants, are all there. The prices of these are there also, and they may be found elsewhere, perhaps, but nowhere else can you find the articles upon which the people of that region lived. How much they depended upon grocery products from a distance may be computed; how much calico they needed and how little money they had to pay for it, may also be calculated.

None of these things can be put down with absolute accuracy, but a fair estimate of a social country group can be figured out of the books of this country store. Goods from New York were often shipped by water to New Brunswick, and from there brought by wagon to central New Jersey. Goods from Philadelphia came up the Delaware River to certain points, and were there freighted over land to this country emporium. The freight bills are there, and an estimate of the time for transporting goods can be figured out from data connected with this trade. The cost of bringing by wagon a load of goods from Milbank, on the Delaware, for example, to this point, is estimated in the day's wages, or a man's time and team. By this we can see the economic cost of living at that distance from such lines of transportation. The point I have in mind was for a time, a post-office, and it was evident from the papers left behind, that at a certain period they handled as many as thirty letters a month. This office was closed owing to the establishment of another at a more convenient point. The correspondence shows that the government claimed a deficit of one dollar

and a quarter. This was offset by a claim by the postmaster that an expense of one dollar and a half had not been reimbursed.

I found a series of slips threaded with a needle, like druggists' prescriptions. These were the bills paid by the storekeeper for the building of the Baptist Church, about a mile away,—bills which he charged to himself eventually. This house of worship served its purpose for a century and is still on the ground. Thus out of a chest or two of family or of business papers, which seemed scarcely worth preservation at the time that they were laid aside, there rises a sketch of the life—intellectual, spiritual and economic—which flourished in that region. I offer you the chance to go in search of family papers among your friends. Take that for a hobby, instead of waiting for your friends to die and for their administrators to burn their papers. Go after your friends now. Make it a hobby. Ask them to let you see old correspondence. They may let you do this willingly when they would not permit some public man, or outsider, to use the family information. You may have the pleasure of bringing into use side-lights upon the history of the time of these papers which, taken with the work of others, will be valuable contributions to our knowledge of those days.

Supposing that one is interested in European history, there are numerous ways in which the life of the time can be brought out. The nearer one approaches the daily life of the period, the more interesting does the study become. Take, for instance, the period when people lived in castles, for the most part, or rather, when the ruling classes thought it necessary to put themselves behind thick stone walls. This can be done perhaps more conveniently in English history, because a foreign language does not stand in the way. That castle population had a peculiar life of its own. The books on architecture will give many illustrations, but they are by no means complete. It would be by no means difficult to make a collection of cheap pictures showing a great variety of castles. In the course of a comparatively short time, a very large number of specimens could be collected. Generally, the most striking thing about the castle is its military capability. These buildings were put up for the purpose of resisting the military art of the period from which they come. We may not be particularly interested in military history, or the development of military art, but you notice

that the current of life is bounded by this art. The kind of life which is led inside of these buildings is determined by the fact that it is primarily a military defence. After the wants of that department of life are provided for, the others must accommodate themselves to the situation. Defence must be provided for by thick walls which are situated possibly upon almost inaccessible points. In this framework of stone, in walls, anywhere from three to nine feet in thickness, the social and intellectual life of at least a certain class of the population must be compressed. Life must fit itself to this framework, like the cucumber growing in a glass bottle. Under these circumstances, what were the conveniences of life? As far as furniture is concerned, the books of illustrations give much help, but they are by no means complete, or consistent. The books are very apt to pick out the finer specimens, illustrate the height to which art had advanced at that period in domestic furniture. That is a valuable point to know, but it is not necessarily accurate to say that people all had these fine specimens and that all children born in a castle grew up under the influence of carved oak.

It may not appear on the outside that it makes much difference whether a person sat upon a bench or upon a cushion on the stone floor, but when you sum up the conveniences of life, it does make a difference in our estimation to know whether they required soft luxuries or were able to endure hard fare and inconvenient household arrangements. It may seem to be a matter of indifference to us, in this generation, to know what the people of the thirteenth century ate, or how much it took to satisfy the wants of the castle population of that period; but properly considered, these things show what economic wants had to be filled, what portion of their time they were willing to give to the fulfillment of these economic wants. The bill of fare of the lord of the castle will show what his gardener must provide, or what his subjects must bring in. The cook-book may play an important roll in our estimation of society in a given period. When recipes call for rare spices, or even for spices which are more common and cheap with us today, we may observe what things the lordly knights were willing to surrender in order to obtain a taste of foreign luxuries. Suppose you should make a list of all the cooks, and cook-books, and recipes to be found within a given period, it would not solve the modern servant ques-

tion, nor would it, probably, add anything new to your culinary art, but you would certainly throw light upon the economic progress of that period.

But suppose you do not care to know what the economic progress of the given period was. Then the thing to do is to take it up for the interest in the thing itself, as a mere matter of recreation to see if we can put ourselves back into the place of those people and feel as they did, when they waked up in the morning. Let us see what their duties were, from hour to hour in a single day, or observe what were their opportunities for cultivation of the morals as well as the muscles. Take note of the circumstances under which these tasks must be carried out—whether cold or heat can be tempered, whether life was carried on in the abundant light of day, or whether the opening on the outer edge of the thick castle wall was shut upon its stormy days by a lightless shutter, or whether light was tempered gently with a covering of oil paper, and when did the inhabitants of the castle or of houses, anyhow, come to have the light of day which arrives through panes of glass. What were the occupations of women, under such circumstances? How did they spend their time between breakfast and the ten o'clock dinner? How much did they actually go about among the peasantry, playing the part of the lady bountiful? What were the evening entertainments of a place situated fifty miles from everywhere else? What did they have to read of a long winter evening? The only sure element in this problem is the long winter evening. There are innumerable lines, questions, or parts of problems which might occupy one profitably and with interest.

One reason for this kind of study is to keep tab upon our historical novelists. An interesting and profitable exercise is to take a description by Walter Scott, for example, and see if it is an accurate picture. The novelists often allow themselves considerable license and misplace times, giving events and using expressions that are not absolutely faithful to the period they are supposed to describe. One of my friends actually applied this process to the author of *Hugh Wynne*, by making his historical seminary work out the descriptions of that period. The study of dress is not quite the superficial matter which one might think at first. There is, of course, the laudable desire to make people look just as they did at the time described. This gives it the

interest of truth. But let me point out one interesting psychological effect of this upon the investigator. The longer he works upon costume, or investigates peculiarities of dress, the more does he become aware that men are alike in all ages, no matter what kind of clothes they wear. That would seem a truism if it were not for the fact that we are always unconsciously led to the belief that people who are dressed in doublet and hose are something just a little different from our own generation. It is hard to divest oneself of the feeling that the Egyptians must have been all a generation of jumping jacks—their pictures are so stiff. It seems impossible to clothe these people with flesh and blood, but Georg Ebers has accomplished this in his novels. If we pursue closely the study of costume of the Middle Ages, or of the period of Cromwell, it will finally dawn on us that those garments did not hinder them from speaking as sharply when they were angry, or gently, when they were not. They said "Gadzooks" and "Ods-bodikins," but after awhile that makes no difference to you. As a matter of fact I think that a great triumph has been reached when the student of history has attained the point where he can look upon a picture of the seventeenth century and feel that the person represented there could make a speech in Parliament, or speak naturally to his wife and family without thinking of his clothes. It is a curious fact that we are conscious of the clothes which they wore, while they went about in spike-toed shoes, or chain armor, without any consciousness whatever that they were acting in a masquerade. It is a still more curious fact that it is perfectly possible to attain a strictly historical mood, or condition of mind while we are amusing ourselves with the study of contemporary pictures.

One might easily enlarge this list of interesting things. What was the life of the eighteenth century doctor? What were the prevailing superstitions of the first century of America? Omit witchcraft, but collect all the rest, and your amazement will be equalled only by your amusement.

For the sake of my consistency as a preacher let me say a little about one way in which I have been amusing myself. For a long time I have been interested in the subject of Blue Laws. Having encountered some of these in my more orthodox studies of the history of Switzerland, I have been curious to follow the matter up in various places. It appears that intimate rules of conduct

and expenditure have been in operation much longer than is ordinarily thought. Usually people are in the habit of charging Blue Laws to our colonial ancestors, and if the mind gets out of the bounds of Connecticut we rarely think farther than England, unless, with a desire to save time, we unload the whole thing at the door of John Calvin.

As a matter of fact, neither John Calvin, nor Praise God Barebones nor Cotton Mather were the inventors. Long before the Reformation the regulation of expenditure and of conduct were seriously undertaken in all the countries of western Europe. It was a part of the paternal duty of magistrates to regulate everything from capital punishment to the price of rope, so the cost of personal decoration and the limits of hospitality were naturally included.

From time to time I have dipped into the records to see how far such regulation would go in the self-governing cities of the upper Rhine region and Switzerland, and it appears that the superintendence of morals was more persistent, if not more drastic, than it was in New England. Each important festivity of your life was watched with jealous care. At your christening the law restrained the hand of your godfather so that you got no more than a gold piece for a gift instead of some big present which would magnify him in the sight of the congregation.

When you got married your wedding receipts were regulated both as to value and as to relationship of the contributor, while your expenditures for entertainment were limited both as to number of guests and the price of the banquet. At times there were published specimen menus of permissible dishes which, indeed, were by no means stingy, but limited just the same. This accords well with an ordinance of 1642, in Basel, which stated that ordinary dinners in taverns should cost 2 shillings, and after the dinner had lasted an hour and a half the cloth should be removed so that guests would know that anything to follow would be extra.

At weddings it was a temptation to invite too many and start life in debt. Persons were fined, for example, for having 55 guests instead of 50. At funerals also the guests had to be restrained. No one but close relatives might wear mourning. Costly ostentation by clothing a lot of dependents in black must be avoided. One family was cited to court for having 16 pall-bearers instead of

the lawful 8, but they explained that the guild of the chief mourner had furnished the extra eight *without expense*. This is an interesting sidelight on the duties and perquisites of the pall-bearer.

The most extraordinary thing in the whole story is the regulation of clothing. The ordinances and the court records together exhibit a terrific struggle with fashion which went on for centuries. The chief object was the promotion of good morals by the suppression of extravagance, but the maintenance of class distinctions was hardly less weighty. Sobriety of clothing was more insisted upon for church than for the street, but both were regulated. In the second half of the fifteenth century the stream of mercenary soldiers brought back from the wars in France not only foreign gold, but strange oaths and fantastic garments. In 1470 the council of Bern fell at once upon pointed shoes and profanity, the long clothes of women, and the short clothes of men. The long beaks of the shoes must be reduced to a finger's length. The coats of men must come below the hips and the trains of women must not lie upon the ground beyond a handbreadth. Distinctions of classes were promoted by ordering that only women of the noble orders might wear costly furs or jewels, but the statute nearly caused a civil war. The upper class refused to obey and the council insisted, but they were years in reaching enforcement.

In 1487 the ordinance on men's short coats had to be re-enacted, and a day was fixed when everybody must change. In 1500 letters were sent out to the towns and country districts that profanity, short clothing, and long swords must be put aside, yet in 1512 another order on short clothing was found necessary. By 1520 the council was again on the hunt after slashed clothing, and the warfare with fashion took a new turn for a half century. In 1530 it was ordered that whoever bought slashed trousers to wear should pay a fine as if he had cut and made them. Trousers slashed at the knee should henceforth be also included in the offence, and from Easter of that year all slashing should come to an end. John Mischler was soon after arrested for unlawful breeches, but his fine was remitted. John was able to show that he had been wearing those trousers in the war, and that he had had them slashed, not in order to be fashionable, but because they had become too small for him. Yet fashion prevailed. In 1557 the council again rose up and passed an order that announcement should be made

from the pulpit that all persons were to be given one week to remove the slashes from their trousers and sew them up. Nevertheless, in 1559 the breeches of men were so puffed out with costly linings that new ordinances must be proclaimed. Forty years had already been spent on that one garment.

Men were fully as obdurate in the eighteenth century, but they did not make as much trouble about dress as the women. The ordinance required that both sexes should come to church in dark clothing, the men in long mantels with ruff or broad collars, and the women with plain veil and no jewelry or with most inconspicuous ornament. All this was in the interest of reverence, on the same ground as the law of 1673, that preachers must not use in their sermons words which provoke laughter.

But the temptation to wear finery to church was everlastingly at work. In the early eighteenth century lace cuffs crept in, and numerous ladies were fined for wearing them to meeting. Little gold chains around the neck caught a lot more of these fines. Gold ornaments on the prayer-books were taboo, but they would get into church and into the court dockets. Now a maid was fined for wearing white shoes to church and now a lady for a plumed hat. Frau Bodner's maid for wearing a costly hairpin and an embroidered wool dress to church got 20 sh. fine, and thus it went from embroidered neckerchiefs to fancy aprons. The church authorities were doubtless in the state of mind of the Governor of Kyburg, who reported that one of his subjects had said publicly, "There is no devil any more" ("which God forbid"), yet he did not wish to prosecute the heretic without further advice.

Evidence of his majesty's presence, however, was not only seen in the sanctuary, but it fairly blossomed on the street. His work must be counteracted everywhere, and here we enter into a phase of censorship and regulation far beyond our modern conception of police powers. Ordinances demanded that clothing should be of a suitable cut on the public street and excessive cost of dress must be avoided in private festivities. Take the year 1681, for example, where the records of the magistrates show the spirit of the age. At that time it was unlawful for ladies to appear on the street in the so-called "unterrock." This was a sort of Mother Hubbard creation, cut low in the neck, but with a yoke which could be inserted when wanted. It was indeed more suitable for a house

dress, but many were the maids in that year who forgot their necks and went out upon errands right into the line of vision of the Basel Constabulary. On April 13, for instance, nineteen women, mostly servants, were cited for being on the street in this *négligé*.

Some weeks later Martin Mender's daughter Elizabeth stated to the court that her mother had been sick, and that she was obliged to attend to the dyeing. Suddenly the dye kettle boiled up and in haste she ran out just as she was in her unterrock to get color stuff at a shop. Fined ten shillings. Frau Elizabeth Berb explained that her bare neck episode occurred near home. She had, in fact, packed away in the cellar, for a fortnight, everything she possessed, and could not find the breast-piece. Ten shillings. Frau Pistorius had a fur garment over her Mother Hubbard and was otherwise correctly clad, but in vain; she was assessed twenty shillings. Salome Wolf answered that she was at the hemp mill when some one stole her jacket and apron and she was obliged to go home in her unterrock. In view of the circumstances Salome was dismissed, and the same leniency was extended to several poor women who had no other garment to wear.

Thus it went down the line from Chief Guildmaster Burckhardt's sister-in-law and Alderman Turneisen's daughter to Professor Rudin's servant girl and Euphrosina Bessler, nurse. During that year one hundred and thirty-four women were weighed in their dress and the majority found wanting. A few had too much, and paid for their love of lace and gold braid. Seven men only were offenders in costume, and this for inordinate wigs and unlawful collars, but the sterner sex made up the difference by failure in Sunday observance, or by dancing and other offenses, till there was a total of two hundred and eighty-nine cases in 1681.

This was a period when the transition from the broad collar of the Cromwellian type to the neckcloth for men was causing much trouble to the authorities. The regulation costume for church called for somber clothing, especially a long, black mantle with a smooth or fluted white collar. The neckcloth was regarded as negligent and irreverent, consequently Hans Caspar Meyer, when appearing at service in such a "halstuch," was duly reported and called to account. Meyer was not a stiffnecked delinquent, claiming neither illness nor the inalienable rights of man. He was rather apologetic and entered a plea in abatement on grounds of

reasonable doubt. As to the facts, he said that on Saturday he had a tailor in his house who on leaving had inadvertently taken the key to the place where his collars were kept. That same night a severe earthquake had occurred, and in view of such a manifestation of Providence, he had concluded that it would not do to miss church that morning, collar or no collar. His case was dismissed.

In Bern about eighty women were before the court in 1676, nearly all for wearing short sleeves. So widespread was the epidemic and so complex was the execution of the law that the magistrates felt compelled to refer to the city council the question as to whether the sleeves should stop just above the elbow or just below. At a time when a large headdress was devastating Zürich the authorities of Bern were also worried about the height of the coiffure. A form called the "Bernoise" was constantly in court, and the censorship found itself compelled to permit the new fashion to be worn by married women, but the headdress must not be ornamented more than three fingers high. A model of the standard was ordered to be kept in the court room and a committee was appointed to take note of the sizes worn by the ladies of the city. Among other offenders in 1692, a young serving woman was fined for excessively red stockings, and another had to answer all at the same time for red stockings, lace on her collar, and for a black silk neck-kerchief.

Note the length of time it takes to fight a given fashion. I quote from an ordinance of Basel of 1637: "Furthermore, all women and girls, of whatever class they may be, shall put away the present altogether too short and abbreviated clothing, as being disgraceful and offensive, nor shall they open their necks too wide, but cover them somewhat more closely according to the old custom; in like manner they shall not wear their neck scarfs so very short or so small that they cannot conceal their own trifling character, but shall have these made of proper length consistent with modesty."

In 1681, as we have seen, the censors were busy with the Mother Hubbard, because it was open at the neck, but apparently in vain. In the eighteenth century it was the same. On Sunday, the 6th of June, 1728, the so-called triple collegium of Zürich, consisting of the Reformation Chamber, the Consistory, and the Court of Marital Relations, formulated a letter to the city council

stating that it was highly necessary to proceed against the luxury and fashions which were destroying the land, in particular, that most vexatious exposure of the neck among women, which was displeasing to God and the respectable world. The women not only appear in the house of the Lord in this distracting fashion, but also allow themselves to be seen about the city. Serious consequences were to be feared if not proceeded against vigorously. Nevertheless, the world has survived the ups and downs of the ladies' collar, while nearly 200 years more have gone by without violent catastrophe, and the ladies' necks are still "uncribbed, uncabined and unconfined."

This protest of 1728 may account for the numerous sumptuary cases which came up in the ensuing period. On one November day in that same 1728, nineteen ladies were fined in various degrees either for low necks, powdered hair, caps which were now too small instead of too large, and for sleeves perforated after the latest fashion. The list included persons as wide apart as wives of church officials on the one hand and daughters of the barber and the grave-digger on the other.

Hard upon the low collar came the hoop-skirt. It is difficult to say when the revival of this fashion reached Switzerland, but in Basel hoops are mentioned as "recent" in 1727. Fines are recorded in the thirties in Zürich, and the ordinance against them after repeated enactments is solemnly reiterated nearly sixty years later, in 1779. In 1734 a man was fined for merely publishing an announcement that new-fashioned hoop-skirts were for sale at a certain place. It was a mighty conflict. At first totally forbidden, under penalty of forty shillings, this insidious thing crept into families, secreted itself in the wardrobes of mothers and daughters, until finally it had to be openly recognized. Later these ladies were fined only because the hoop-skirt was too large, or because they wore them to church. In 1755 serving maids were specially notified to beware of too much expansion in this garment. In 1776 the court complained in February that the hoop-skirt was surreptitiously returning into use under the name of "poches," or paniers, involving much needless expense to society. In June, 1776, it was reported to be in a state of vigorous revival, and doubtless after July, 1776, it entered upon that career of independence which all fashions have since enjoyed. Thus it was with lace cuffs, with

neck-kerchiefs, and with short sleeves, but the fashions marched firmly on until the authorities were obliged to capitulate by announcing that the public might have the forbidden articles, but they must be cut after the patterns fixed by the court. The magistrates became excited over the head-dress, first on account of lace, then ribbons, then feathers, but the ladies eventually won, in fact if not in words.

I have given you but a few glimpses into the field of moral censorship and sumptuary regulation. Tobacco, coffee and dancing, which have now become prime necessities of life, were first scolded, then embraced. Smoking was first treated as sinful, then as a dangerous cause of fire. Coffee was forbidden as deleterious by ordinance in Basel as late as 1769, but must have been already in regular use, because coffee-houses are mentioned and regulated.

The list is not exhausted, but I have taken out enough to show that the pursuit of little hobbies of this kind has certain compensations of its own. I avoid calling attention to the curious sidelights upon society and civilization here obtained, because "recreation" is the title of my theme.

THE DIFFERENTIATION OF HISTORY TEACHING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, SEVENTH GRADE, FROM THAT OF THE HIGH SCHOOL, SENIOR CLASS, ILLUSTRATED BY REFERENCE TO THE CAUSES OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

BY LOUISE J. HEDGE
BROOKLYN TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS

In conferring with my fellow-speakers as to the point of view of each with reference to the proper differentiation of history teaching in the successive grades of educational institutions, one cheering conclusion has been borne in upon me, that our young people really grow very fast, measuring their development by the increase in intellectual power implied in the plans for teaching them five years and nine years respectively after the seventh grade of the elementary school. I mean to keep this thought in my mind side by side with the usual point of view of us educators, that when boys and girls get to any specific year of work "they are so immature"; the effect on my judgment may be wholesome.

In treating the assigned topic from the standpoint of the seventh year of the elementary school, I shall discuss first the question of choice of subject-matter. Previous to this grade the children have usually had only American history in anything like a formal course. A very great difference is at once evident as to the number of topics one can handle in this grade in comparison with the number possible in the senior year in high school. The number of hours a week devoted to the subject it is not possible to discuss as a factor in causing this difference, because it would involve the discussion of whether the schools having American history in the seventh year usually have it as a complete course in that year or as a part of a longer course including other history than American, as in the course recommended by the Committee of Eight or in the recently adopted course for the schools of New York City. This would carry us too far afield.

Laying aside that point, then, the immaturity of the pupil in

itself causes us to select fewer topics than we would use later. His powers of assimilation have to be reckoned with. For example, in trying to have him understand the efforts of England to enforce more strictly the navigation acts between 1760 and 1764 with the resulting opposition in the colonies, it would be best to center attention on the topic of writs of assistance and let the matter of trial in admiralty courts and the passage of the Sugar Act go, despite their value, for the reason that the former topic is more easily understood and has in it a personal and dramatic element through the connection of James Otis with it. That second reason brings up the second difference in subject-matter, illustrating it very well; given two topics of fairly equal importance, the more concrete and dramatic should be chosen. You will probably say to me, "That is exactly what the high school teacher should do!" Yet I believe you will agree with me that the dramatic quality of a topic should have more weight in the elementary school than it should in the high school.

The next important differentiation between the two schools is along the line of the method of presentation and study. First of all, I believe that, in apportioning the amount of stress needed on habits of visualization and of organization, the greater weight proportionately in the lower school will fall on habits of visualization. This point of view has had its influence upon me in my succeeding statements regarding the method of acquiring subject-matter.

What shall be done with the text-book? There should be much study of the text with the teacher, with a consciousness on the part of the pupil that he is being trained in the art of studying, as well as being assisted to acquire knowledge on the causes of the American Revolution. The reading in connection with this study should proceed from the oral reading customary in the fifth and sixth grades to silent reading of longer and longer units before discussion of their content. With this should go practice in the habit of consulting the map while studying, and training in making pictures deliver up their facts as fully as if they were printed text. Gradually there should be introduced study of the text without the teacher's aid at study periods in school; preferably there should be no home study for the class as a whole outside of school. That, to my mind, should be postponed to the eighth year, not only for the child's present good, but also for the inculca-

tion of those habits of study that the high school teacher would be so glad to find already established when the boy or girl passes into his hands. Either supervising officials or parents may occasionally make it difficult to carry out this plan, yet I believe it is worth struggling to carry out.

Reporting on study done in books other than one or more textbooks accessible to the class should be chiefly, if not exclusively, voluntary, and of course would be done largely outside of school; this would be leading the brighter pupils toward that home study of which we have spoken. The nature of such work, as suggested by the teacher to possible volunteers, should be extremely simple, so as to foster pleasure in doing such work; it might be merely a preparation to read well to the class a certain outside reference, such as the preamble and opening sections of the Declaration of Rights of 1765; or it might be a report in the pupil's own words of some brief topic taken from some easily accessible reference books, but the assignment should be very definite and more aid should be given as to the points to be covered, and more care taken to offer only easily visualized topics than would be best in a senior class in the high school.

Having considered the choice of subject-matter and how it should be brought before the children's minds, we are now ready to consider how the organization of that material would differ in the two years under discussion. The nature of the relations to be brought out between facts would differ somewhat, but the bigger difference would lie in the reach of those relations back into the past; in both grades they ought to reach forward into the present at every possible point. As to just what organization of the causes of the American Revolution is in accordance with the truth and as to just how much of that organization seventh grade pupils may wisely be helped to make, we shall probably agree less than on any other one proposition of this morning's discussion. I present my own point of view with extreme modesty, I assure you.

This is what I believe possible and sensible. In general, little attempt should be made to lead the pupils to see the causes of the Revolution in conditions previous to the accession of George III. The number of cases of friction between the colonists and the royal governors or other king's officers brought to the notice of the pupils while studying the colonies would be few; therefore the basis for

understanding the habit of mind that the colonists had been long acquiring in watching for any encroachment on their rights by the home government and of resisting such encroachment would be slight, and any attempt to make a strong point of it in gathering together the causes of the Revolution would either take too much time or would come close to rote work. You see I do not believe it to be in itself a point beyond the comprehension of the pupils—as some of the points would be that the high school might take—but that it is better to keep the number of points one makes noticeably small and have those understood in a real way. Probably in talking of how jealous the colonists were of all their rights just before the Revolution, I should call for illustrations of this same attitude in the earlier colonial history, but should not, as I have said, develop the point formally. In the same informal way the effect upon the spirit of the colonists of living far across the sea from England might be touched—the children would have a fellow-feeling for them, knowing their own sensations when temporarily beyond the reach of authority; also in the same fashion could be handled the idea of how fighting in the French and Indian War increased the belief of the colonists in their own powers. Having disposed of these preliminaries, I shall now state the formal organization of causes that I do think possible to teach.

The underlying causes were two opposing ideas and purposes; in the minds of the colonists, the growing belief that they were entitled to the same rights and privileges as Englishmen at home and the intention to have those rights; in the minds of the English, the idea that the colonies existed for the benefit of the mother-country, and should be governed accordingly. The specific causes were all those expressions of either the American or the English point of view that roused the other side to still further action. Of these, some of the most important were:

1. The attempt to check smuggling by the use of the writs of assistance; and the colonies' resistance in the courts under the leadership of James Otis.

2. The passage of the Stamp Act; and the opposition to it in the form of the Stamp Act Congress, the formation of the Sons of Liberty and the non-importation agreements.

3. The Declaratory Act at the same time as the repeal of the Stamp Act and the Townshend Acts; and the opposition to these

by the merchants and by the assemblies; the dissolving of the assemblies and the sending of troops; and the retort by forming the Committees of Correspondence.

4. The sending of the tea ships; and the resistance to receiving the tea, especially by the Boston Tea Party; England's rebuke in the form of the "intolerable acts" (of which the children should take the Boston Port Bill, the abolishing of town-meetings in Massachusetts by the Regulating Act, and the Quebec Act); and the retort of the Americans in the First Continental Congress and in the arming to resist the troops of General Gage.

5. The taking sides in England for or against the colonists.

Of these interlocking events the groups that would have the most study would be the Stamp Act controversy and the group beginning with the sending of the tea. I have been thus extremely specific as to what should be taught, at the risk of boring you with details, because I believe that only so can we lay a basis for profitable discussion as the reasonableness of this plan.

The problem of how to work up this organization with the pupils seems to me of equal importance with the problem of what to teach; how far there is a differentiation between the high school procedure and elementary procedure in this matter I am by no means sure. I hope to get light on this point from the rest of you, as well as on the question of whether the method I advocate presupposes too much mental power on the part of seventh grade pupils, provided they have been well-trained in the fifth and sixth grades. I myself have not handled this period with seventh grade children. I should not present the underlying causes to the pupils when they first begin to study the events of those years preceding the Revolution. Each event would be taken in its time order, linked to the one preceding, shown as leading on to the next following, and each time the spirit behind the deed would be noted. Then, about the time the Boston Tea Party is taken up, the pupils should be led to see that all the ideas and feelings of the colonists may be put under one head—that of wishing the rights of Englishmen, such as having their homes safeguarded from unjust inspection, and being taxed only by their own representatives (as they understood that doctrine); that the colonists were gradually uniting more and more in the endeavor to carry out their ideas; that all the thoughts and feelings of the English who opposed the colonists

may also be put under one head—that of so governing the colonies as to help the English people, especially the merchants and manufacturers, rather than to help the colonists. From that time on, in the study of the period, the pupils should be expected to discover behind each event as it is taken up, either the American idea or the English idea. Of course no memorizing of a complete list of specific causes would be in accord with the kind of study we have been considering. In the course of this study the teacher should teach the fact that the underlying causes of any great movement are ideas and feelings that people hold, while the specific or particular causes are usually acts of the people that show what they think and how they feel.

The final line of difference between the elementary and the high school work would be in the field of immediate use of the knowledge in order still further to vivify it and fix it. First of all, I should say that there is more likelihood, in the grades, of definite correlation with the writing of compositions, either through straight reproduction of some interesting incident, or by the use of the material with some slight element of fancy; for example, the pupil fancies himself a citizen of Boston at the time of the struggle over the writs of assistance and describes how he felt when he heard Otis' speech in court. In the use of handwork the difference may be still greater along certain lines. This would not be true of the maps, I should think, though the character of the maps might vary to some extent; for instance, it might be worth while for the seventh grade children to draw a map of the thirteen colonies undivided, including their claims to the Mississippi, and then to show what territory would be lost to them if the Quebec Act should go into effect—this for the sake of showing how angry this would make the colonists; while high school pupils might well make a map showing the claims of the individual colonies to the region affected, since that would be a basis for understanding the question of the disposal of that same land after the treaty with England. It is in the use of construction work that we should find the big difference, if we were illustrating from the whole year's work, but that point is shown almost not at all by the particular field under discussion. I refer, of course, to the making of such things as models of simple blockhouses or of a covered wagon like that in which the pioneers went westward; or, by a class together, of a

palisaded fort like Boonesborough. Such work seems to be a wonderful help to the children in making the history real and worth studying.

Dramatization of history material would not be used at all above the elementary school, perhaps, but there it is a wonderful vitalizer and is well worth considerable expenditure of time, provided the material is well chosen. As in the case of the manual work, however, the period under discussion furnishes little illustration of this point. A wise choice of material, by the way, is apparently difficult for teachers making their first experiments along this line. I remember one case of this sort, some years ago, when we were all feeling our way rather blindly toward good work. A certain class of children, under the guidance of an enthusiastic young teacher, had been working at history plays. They had been encouraged to show initiative. This was in the class-room. Then came an opportunity to use such material for an assembly exercise. The affair was not one for which I had any direct responsibility, but I was invited to be present. I recall only one scene; it was a debate in the House of Commons over what should be done with the colonies—not very good material for the purpose, at best, and, as it proved, particularly unwise for these spontaneous youngsters. One of them, representing William Pitt, had just made a brief speech favorable to the colonists when up rose an opposing speaker, and suddenly improvising her lines—in order to show more wrath—began “That William Pitt there.” I was appalled! A shout of laughter seemed inevitable. But no; the children did not know that that was not an allowable form of parliamentary address, and the teachers were too kind to show surprise. I learned that morning that having history plays is a good way to discover what is wrong in children’s mental pictures. This point I have since come to believe is one of the chief values of the history play. That statement implies something concerning the method of procedure in working up history plays that would surely differentiate the elementary school from the high school, provided such were to be given at all in the upper school. In their games, the children are still in the stage of “playing” or “pretending,” and they do it with directness and lack of self-consciousness, if they are not spoiled. That being true, I believe in their deciding with their teacher what scenes to play, what is needed in the way of properties, who shall

take the parts, and then, after a minute or two of conference as to general procedure, they should get up and play. Of course there will be errors, but these can be the basis for profitable discussion, and a second trial will show great gain. In my experience, scenes so worked up rarely occupy more than three or four minutes in the playing, so the effort is not too sustained. I believe this method to be much better, in general, at this stage than the writings of plays or the learning of them from books; though, when one needs a play in good form for assembly exercises, such as one taken from a book, children trained in working out their own plays will, I believe, far excel those not so trained, in the reality and the naturalness of their acting.

Consider for a moment using in the high school such a plan as I have outlined. Surely it would fail; self-consciousness would make it impossible and, aside from that, results would be trivial. If anything were done in the high school, it would have to be the serious writing and acting of a play as a joint exercise of the departments of history and English. I have never heard of its being done. Would it pay? Some of you know the answer to that question far better than I do.

If we sum up what I believe to be the probable differences between the work of the seventh grade and that of the senior year in high school, I think it will be evident that, throughout the teaching, there should be greater stress in the elementary school on the training in visualization of the past. This influences the teacher to select fewer topics with fuller details; to choose especially concrete topics; to show pupils just how to visualize, when training them in the art of study; to keep concrete even the organization of subject-matter that follows study; and finally, in seeking to impress what has been learned, to use freely the most concrete forms of expression possible. Visualization is as essential in the high school as in the elementary school, but it is in the lower school that the habit should be developed and the pupil made conscious of it as a desirable habit. If the work is well done in the elementary school, the high school should reap the benefit.

MATERIAL AND TREATMENT OF THE CAUSES OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION FOR A SENIOR CLASS IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

BY PHILIP DOUGHERTY
BALTIMORE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE

What I shall have to say in this paper will be based entirely upon a course in American history which has as a prerequisite the study of English history. I realize very well that such a condition does not exist in all High Schools, nevertheless it seems best to limit the discussion to the field where conditions are more nearly ideal. In the High School, as in the elementary school and college, any course in any subject, if it is to be at all successful, must be arranged to suit the mental capabilities of the students electing it. The students of the senior year in the High School are deficient, to a certain extent, in one of the essential attributes of a successful college student—that is, the power of initiative. However, the average boy or girl finishing the High School work has fairly good retentive powers and more ability to comprehend than is usually attributed to him.

It must always be remembered that in considering just what the aim of our teaching is to be it is necessary to remember that there are two distinct classes of pupils in the High School—those who are going to college and those who are not. Happily in this case I do not think that it is necessary to differentiate. One method of treatment will suffice for both. What our graduates will need in either case is a liberal supply of useful and definite facts. If they go into business or if they go to college they should leave the High School with a certain definite and satisfying knowledge of the causes of the American Revolution. Now that there are so many text-books that are reliable and even scholarly, the teacher has had one handicap removed, and much of the time which was formerly given to supplying the deficiencies of a poor text can be used in working up a skillful presentation of material. Such being the case, society in general and the college in particular can rightly expect that the graduates of the High Schools shall be better pre-

pared in the historical field than has been the case in the not so far remote past.

The general aim of the treatment of the causes of the Revolution in the High School should be to show the Revolution as the struggle of a self-dependent and progressive people to compel the adoption of an enlightened and statesmanlike policy on the part of Great Britain and, that failing, to declare their independence and rid themselves of English control entirely. It has been my experience that there are two distinct phases in the movement from its inception down through the period when independence was declared. The first is the struggle of the colonists with the mother country over what is termed the rights of Englishmen, and is exemplified in the disputes over internal taxes. This phase is generally very well understood and appreciated. The second is the struggle with the mother country over the question of trade regulation as exemplified in the navigation acts and the sugar acts. I must confess that here is where the difficulty comes to the students who are under my direction. They cannot justify the actions of the colonists in evading and forcibly protesting against the legislation, when the colonists have stated definitely that Great Britain has the right to legislate for the trade of the kingdom. This is the feeling when they first attack the problem. The trouble is obvious, they are trying to make the Revolution a legal process. The first phase fits in very nicely with their conception—the rights of the colonists upon; but the second phase is a puzzler. To the majority, backed up by their bubbling patriotism, it seems impossible for the Americans to do anything which has not the sanction of law. They see the injustice of the acts, the incompetency of the English colonial system, but the whole thing bothers them until finally their minds begin to work more actively and a new and more comprehensive conception of the meaning of the term revolution is reached.

Many students electing American history in the senior year, I have no doubt, approach the study of the period of the Revolution, if not with actual distaste, at least without enthusiasm. It is a threadbare subject to them. They have covered the ground in the seventh grade and have been over practically the same material, only from another viewpoint, in the previous year's work in English history. For that reason, and you will agree that it is a

sufficient one, the work and viewpoint previously covered should be reviewed as rapidly as thoroughness will permit. The spectacular and romantic incidents which have been retained from elementary school days should be interpreted in the light of one of the two principal phases spoken of above. In preparation for a more intensive study of English colonial policy there should be a review of the following topics from English history—a statement of the main features of English colonial policy prior to 1696, the departmental method of administration of affairs after the ascendancy of Parliament, the general policy of George III, the English ideas of representation, the great English constitutional documents, and British colonial policy as exemplified in Canada at the present time.

The actual work to be done is an intensive study of the period between 1760 and 1775, or, better still, down through the declaration of independence. The study of the period falls naturally into the examination of the attitude and views of the colonists and the theory and practice of British colonial government during this time. In taking up the first of these topics it is necessary to differentiate between the attitude of submissive protest and the later attitude of forceful resistance to the wishes of Great Britain. In dealing with the second topic considerable emphasis will need to be placed upon the mercantile theory of commerce and the actual operation of the machinery of colonial government during this period. It is at this point that the student should attempt to view the colonies and their plans from the standpoint of those English gentlemen who were in control of the home government at this time. It is a good place to show that the system placed upon the colonies by the mother country was not so malicious as it was obsolete and unprogressive. In making the study of the situation in England I think it better to confine the work to the broad outline of colonial policy rather than a detailed examination. As already pointed out, the student should be able to grasp the meaning of the mercantile theory of trade; he should know of the board of trade and plantations, and how it acted in an advisory rather than an executive capacity; and finally, he should have some knowledge of the official capacity of men such as Grenville and Townshend, whose names are familiar to him from the study of the text-book. The study, to be really worth while, must emphasize the facts that English

colonial administration suffered not only from the method by which affairs were carried on, which was awkward and unbusinesslike, but also because of the lack of really capable men in governmental administration in England during the greater part of the revolutionary period. If this cannot be realized by a direct study of the period, then a comparison of modern colonial administration with that in force in the eighteenth century should bring about the desired result.

A desirable way to sum up the whole period and to crystallize the principal ideas gained through the study is to propose a problem for the class to solve. It can be stated in some such manner as this: Do you think that if Great Britain had given up the right to place internal taxes upon the colonies, the colonies would have been willing to live up to their statement in the Declaration of Rights that Parliament had the right to pass acts regulating the trade of the whole empire? To have such an exercise prove a success, I think it best to have the question in a conspicuous place on the blackboard during the study of the causes of the Revolution, for then the student is consciously or unconsciously trying to adjust the various exercises to the solution of the query. As an answer to this question I think that if the work has been done conscientiously the majority of the boys or girls will give an affirmative reply, but with certain provisions attached. The principal provision, of course, will be that Great Britain give up her mercantile theory of trade and substitute some such plan as she adopts with her colonies to-day. This naturally leads to the further question of why this did not come about, and now, it seems to me, comes the fruit of all our labor. The very essence of the Revolution becomes clear when the student realizes that a condition has arisen for the solution of which there is no precedent. Progress lies in one direction, and that way is impeded by an unprepared and incompetent government, so the colonists must resort to force and the Revolution is justified.

In this discussion of the material available for a High School class I have found it necessary, owing to the small amount of time at my disposal, to generalize quite a good deal. However, I trust that enough has been said to give you some idea of the amount and nature of the material that a secondary school may properly attempt. If we can arrive at some conclusion with regard to the

field itself it will be a comparatively easy matter to work out the details and arrange them properly.

If you will bear with me a little longer, I shall attempt to say something about the method of presentation of the material. The basis of work, of course, is the text-book. In general most of the modern texts contain about the same material, although there are two or three for this particular study that are superior in their treatment. The activities and views of the colonists are rather fully presented, but the attitude and views of the people controlling the English Government are usually inadequately and incompletely covered, so that this phase of the subject needs very careful presentation on the part of the teacher. Regular assignments, then, in the text should serve as the basis for discussion in class.

In addition to the regular text-book work, there are two ways that a High School student may get a clearer and more comprehensive view of the period. They are the study of source material and reputable secondary authorities. The work with source material can be made very profitable, and even interesting, if it is done with skill. The amount of work that may be done along this line will vary in different schools, according to the size and number of classes and the teaching assignment of the instructor. I am inclined to think that much more time can be spent profitably along this line than we are apt to believe. It is work, however, that needs careful preparation and careful supervision. In dealing with documents, such as statutes, I think the most effective work can be done in the class-room with each student supplied with a source book such as that of MacDonald, or any other that contains a good collection of material. As an example let us take an exercise which has for its object the study of the Molasses Act of 1733. Before the reading of the document begins it is advisable to set various problems for the students to solve from the study of the act in order to focus their attention upon the salient points of the document. A few of the questions might be stated thus: What duty were the colonists expected to pay upon molasses imported by them? Why did Great Britain want the colonists to buy molasses solely from the British West Indies? How would the act affect the trade of the colonies? Why did Great Britain pass such an act? Of course a number of other acts or orders could be taken as examples, but whatever is attempted should be along specific or

concrete lines. The reason why a great part of source material work is so unsatisfactory is because, somehow, we expect boys and girls of eighteen to have the critical faculty of trained historians. In dealing with sources that are more personal in their nature it is possible to work up a good deal of real enthusiasm. The students take delight in hearing Franklin's testimony before the House of Commons, and are really interested in some of the letters written by individuals expressing their views upon the questions of the day. A large part of this work can be done at home or during a preparation period, although the reading of this evidence in class often gives life to a colorless recitation and lends interest to many points that may be very matter-of-fact.

When we come to the secondary material the principal point at issue is to decide how much to do along this line when the field is so wide. Where library facilities are good and preparation periods prevail, I am of the opinion that a great deal of this work should be optional with the pupil, although he should know the standard authorities and become fairly well acquainted with them. Reports from various readings can be required from some of the students, and as many as possible should be read before the class. Oftentimes an interesting exercise can be worked up by pupils making reports from two authors who have somewhat different viewpoints upon the same subject. Another profitable exercise to attempt can be stated thus: Allow two students, one representing the Tory element and one the Whig, to present their views upon representation to the class after they have collected their material. The value of such an exercise is that it removes the printed page to actual life and brings home the point that the two views are distinctly opposed to each other. For those who are not inclined toward written reports and who possess ability to draw well there are many interesting charts that can be made to illustrate certain facts or emphasize points in the text. If you are teaching in a school supplied with drafting materials where the students have a regular course in draftsmanship, you no doubt have found out that the boys do this work remarkably well, and take particular delight in it. If this propensity is encouraged you will find that in the course of a few years you have acquired the basis for a real historical laboratory. Finally, if there is in your school a good lantern and you have at your disposal a well-selected lot of

lantern slides, you may pass a profitable and pleasant half hour showing some of the evidences of the period that you are studying.

You have come to the conclusion long before this, I dare say, that if everything is attempted that has been suggested, there won't be anything taught the last year but the causes of the Revolution. The only consolation that I can think of is that very likely some one else can suggest several other things to do that I haven't mentioned. At all events, this period we are discussing is not lacking in material, nor is a teacher limited to any one particular method of presentation. Each school will have to solve its own particular problem, when it comes, as to just what may be attempted. However, I think that not so much time is needed as you may think from the foregoing. The study of the period really begins in the fourth year with the colonial era. The political institutions of this period should be carefully studied not only for their own significance, but for their determining effects later. In the study which succeeds, that of the struggle between the English and the French, there are many points and relations that indicate what is to follow. If the teacher collects from time to time these strands which lead directly up to the struggle for independence and emphasizes their import, he is saving time and doing some of the work that is often left to the Revolution period proper. Then, again, the work of the previous year in English History is going to make many things clear, and by a careful review of this material many minutes may be saved for the intensive study that is to follow. Finally, a great deal of time is saved by establishing the point of view that the students are to take in this their third study of the question. If there is something to be done, some particular piece of work to be accomplished, it is well to have it formulated very carefully before the work starts. If you find that you are still unable to do what you have planned in the time allotted, then take a little time from something else. Time is not lost in studying the movement which gave rise to the American federal union, a government which has very materially influenced political movements in Europe and the Americas.

It is a hard matter to decide just how much material a pupil retains coming from the seventh grade to the third year in the High School, an interval of four years having intervened. It has been my experience that when a pupil takes up the study of

American History in the High School, he knows pretty well the romantic incidents between 1760 and 1776, and has an idea that the cause of the American Revolution was "taxation without representation." Occasionally he knows of the struggle as one where the colonists were attempting to get certain rights belonging to all Englishmen. I say this in no spirit of criticism of the instruction in the elementary school. We all know from experience that a great many things can be forgotten in four years' time. For that reason I think it is going to be somewhat difficult to make use of a definite developmental plan, although it is by no means impossible. Each type, the elementary school and the high school, must adjust the treatment of the subject to the mental growth of its respective students. If this is done then the only difference in results is that the concept obtained by the High School student is a somewhat broader and fuller one than that obtained by the girl or boy in the seventh grade. I cannot speak with any authority with regard to the other relation, that of the college and the High School, although my own experience has been that the college course has fitted in rather well with the work done in the High School.

To sum up, then, the treatment of the causes of the American Revolution in the fourth year of the High School should be in a sense a final one. I do not mean that it should be the most comprehensive possible, merely that it should be true in so far as we are able to determine. For the boys and girls who go out to work it should be complete and satisfying, for those who go to college and continue the study of American History, it should be as a solid foundation upon which they may build to a wider and fuller comprehension.

CAUSES OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION—MATERIAL AND TREATMENT FOR A COLLEGE CLASS

BY CHARLES W. SPENCER
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY

The time-limits for this paper permit to me, as it seems, least of all the three, the development of a complete outline of treatment of the subject. The presumed attainment by the student of a greater degree of maturity by the time the college stage has been reached allows to the college treatment of the subject fuller recognition of the complexity of the questions involved. Greater ability to appreciate the relation of social and economic conditions to political action may be presumed. (Please note that I decline to assert that these presumptions are universally justified!) The period from 1760 to 1775 in American history is, to me, a period rather especially characterized by complexity of issues and of social, economic and political conditions. Under these circumstances, therefore, I shall hardly do more than indicate certain features of further analysis and co-ordinating emphasis, which in my judgment may properly differentiate the treatment of the subject in a college course from that which is possible for the fourth year high school treatment.

But first, it seems worth while to inquire just what should be meant by the "Revolution" and its "Causes." I note that we all seem to agree that the period covered by this phase is that included between the conquest of Canada and the evidence of apparently hopeless estrangement between the American colonies and the British government. I take it that we all deprecate the notion, seemingly too popularly prevalent, that the Revolution *begins* with Lexington and Concord, and that the causes of the revolution are simply the events immediately leading to armed conflict. Even the phrase, "Preliminaries of the Revolution," used by Professor Howard as the title of his volume in the American Nation Series, is in danger of conveying an unfortunate impression. (Such im-

pression, I am bound to say, if actually conveyed by the title, is corrected by the contents of the book.) But if the Revolution did not begin at Lexington, when *did* it begin? In one sense, the Revolution was fully launched when the Stamp Act had been passed in England, nullified in America, and repealed in England with the accompaniment of the Declaratory Act. At that point, in 1766, it may be said that the questions of the principle of organization and of method of management of the British Empire had been raised, with a perspective backward into the colonial period, and under immediate circumstances, which made the very raising of the imperial question in itself fateful. The circumstances connected with the raising showed that an alteration in the distribution of actual political power had already been effected, and this, not the resort to armed conflict, is the essence of revolution. In this sense, the causes must be sought wholly in the colonial period. The Revolution in this sense comes as a culmination of social, economic and political tendencies in America, and of developments of imperial theories and practices in England, which had been operative ever since the beginning of the English occupation of America.

To confine the meaning of the Revolution as just suggested would, however, be to ignore an equally significant feature of the whole movement. Actually, the phrase—period of the revolution—includes the concepts *both* of revolutionary change in the British Empire and of the beginnings of organized quasi-national union in America itself. If, in interpreting the word revolution, we lay emphasis on the United American secession from the empire, the manner in which, once fatefully raised, the dispute over the imperial question was conducted, both in England and in America, is highly important. Only so may we account for what appeared both to Englishmen and to Americans themselves, as the miraculous achievement of a wholly unprecedented capacity of the Americans for united action. Still further, not only was there a general revolution throughout continental America, south of Canada, in the matter of relations with England, there were revolutions in the arrangements of political forces within many of the colonies themselves. And in certain cases, these intra-provincial revolutions were essential and auxiliary to the success of the union-in-secession movement as a whole. The Revolution was thus a two-fold movement—as Ames and Root put it, a contest for home rule, and

a contest for rule at home. Causes must mean not only the conditions accounting for the contests, but also conditions accounting for the outcome.

Thus, the "Causes of the Revolution" may be properly interpreted as meaning *both* the long-run and fundamental conditions leading to the raising of the imperial question, *and also* the more immediate conditions and circumstances surrounding the conduct of the dispute and helping to account for its outcome in an outwardly and formally independent, and, as yet, only incipiently, national America. And the time limits of the period to be studied may reach back indefinitely into the colonial period, and as far forward at least as the Declaration of Independence.

Turning now to features which may especially characterize the treatment of the period in college work, I would suggest, in the first place, a more elaborate examination of the imperial question as raised by Grenville. The recognition of three leading features of the Grenville policy, viz., stricter enforcement of the trade laws, the establishment of a standing army in America, and internal taxation, is familiar and just. It illuminates these three features very much, however, to recognize the other features of what Grenville regarded as his reforming policy. The restriction of paper money issues by the Currency Act of 1764 was immensely significant for American provincial finance. The Sugar Act of 1764 was only part of a general readjustment of the system of commercial regulations, which included bounties on colonial productions, as well as "external" taxes. The general purpose of this readjustment was to recognize the change in the whole theory and plan of imperial administration which the decision to retain Canada instead of the French West Indies at the Peace of Paris was thought to require. The Proclamation of 1763 and the abortive attempt to substitute unified imperial control of Indian relations for ruthless and dangerously conflicting American proceedings in this regard are, to say the least, equally important with the determination to maintain a standing military force in America.

This list of complicating elements of the Grenville policy might, of course, be further extended—these are only illustrations. The connection of the features just mentioned with the three usually mentioned features is obvious, and I am not assuming that such connection may not have been indicated to the student before the

college stage. But at this stage, they should not only be elaborated—their connection with developments in the colonial period should be worked out. On each of these matters there is a long perspective of developing controversy between the Home Government and separate provinces. Not merely the fact of long-time preparation of the elements of a controversy over principles and methods of imperial management is important. The practical and actually effective results of American practice vs. imperial aims on these matters should be sought for. Could a candid, impartial observer say that it would be safe to rely on the requisition system, for example, as a means of securing inter-colonial co-operation in defence? The experience of the four intercolonial wars since 1689 ought to be reviewed in this connection. The "Parsons Cause" in Virginia falls into its proper place as only an instructive episode, when the whole situation as to currency issues and debt-payment is reviewed.

Further, such a relating of the multiple features of the Grenville policy to the developments of the colonial period would bring out more clearly that an attempt at stiffening the imperial organization had been begun by the Crown as early as 1748; that the fourth inter-colonial war had not only interrupted this attempt but had brought to light, not to say scandal, a degree of weakness not before appreciated. This war plainly demonstrated that the requisition system was unworkable as a plan of imperial defence. But it had done more—it had shown the Americans in their propensity for illegal commercial operations not scrupling at trade with the enemy. And the point about this enemy trade was—not that there was some of it—but that it was carried on in such proportions as to add appreciably to the difficulties of the campaigns. The use of the royal navy in enforcing the imperial commercial system—a feature of the Grenville policy frequently mentioned—had its origin in this situation—which is by no means so frequently appreciated.

These are but indications of the way in which the complexity of the imperial question raised by the Grenville policy might be developed in relation to the tendencies and practices of the colonial period. Americans had legitimate grievances against imperial management, but so had imperial management against the Americans. The nearly simultaneous attack by the imperial headquarters upon so many long-developed, critical matters at once in the years 1762-

65 is no small part of the situation which made the very raising of the imperial question almost a revolution in itself.

Furthermore, appreciation of these practically perplexing concrete issues is essential to a view of the elaborate arguments upon legal and constitutional questions in their proper perspective. Throughout all the struggles between governors and assemblies in the colonial period there had been this same dual aspect—a dress-parade of debate upon questions of precedent on the one hand, carried on in the pamphlet literature and assembly resolves, and, on the other, a pulling and hauling on specific points of procedure, the usual result being a practical, even if slight, advance on the part of the American cause. The outcome, then, of the Stamp Act affair—a yielding by the home government of the particular point, accompanied by a *salve* of the general principle, was by no means unfamiliar to the American politicians.

Time will allow me only to hint at the treatment of the period after the raising of the imperial question. Actually, in planning a course, I should be inclined to lay the greater stress and give more time to the manner in which the dispute over the imperial question, once raised in systematic fashion, was conducted, and to the internal, political revolutions within the separate provinces. In following the dispute from the passage of the Townshend Acts to the adoption of the coercion policy, I should prefer to emphasize the significance of American social and political ideals and practices and, comparatively speaking, ease up on poor George III. It is true, of course, that the English side of the dispute was conducted with "ineptitude." The vacillation between threats alarming to American ideals of personal liberty and provincial autonomy as already enjoyed, and yieldings whenever experience showed that nothing short of forcible coercion would avail, is one of the features of this "ineptitude." Its most important consequence was that agitators in America were given time and opportunity to organize an apparatus for united resistance. But suppose the baleful machinations of the King were removed from the scene. Was there a sufficient agreement, even then, between English and American opinion on social and political ideals to permit the discussion over a centralized vs. a federative empire to come out on a workable compromise basis? Personally, I believe that the working out of "new-country" conditions in the colonial period had given to Ameri-

can minds a new content for the words and phrases time-honored in English legal and constitutional discussions,—a content which was quite strange to English minds, and hence that misunderstanding and misinterpretation could not fail to be mutual and sincere. The peculiar designs of George III. did make it impossible for the imperial headquarters on its party-political side to meet the situation with the especial kind of talent required. But the key to the situation is this condition of American ideals and practices referred to. And on the whole the more important aspect of the conduct of the dispute is the program of the agitators in America in organizing a machinery of colonial union and especially in appealing to elements in American society hitherto without influence in politics.

Here is where the importance of the revolutions in political arrangements within the provinces comes in. In times of crisis, the more aggressive and radical portions of the community are especially able to influence the march of events. In carrying on the struggle with England for home rule within the empire, these radical elements had served a turn practically useful for the American cause. But to a large extent these radical elements were either excluded or very imperfectly represented in the existing political organization of the provinces. In organizing the machinery of American union and resistance to the centralized empire cause, these radical elements had, of course, to be admitted. It is a highly complex story and the conditions and their working out were different in each province. There was a general revolution on the imperial question, there were also thirteen revolutions on questions of internal political organization. And these intra-provincial revolutions—as described, for instance, in Lincoln's Revolutionary Movement in Pennsylvania and Becker's Political Parties in New York—were inextricably interwoven with the general revolution throughout the thirteen colonies. For example, the call from New York for the First Continental Congress, so-called, has been shown by Becker to be due to the exigencies of the situation within that province. And, as Friedenwald brings out, the campaign for the Declaration of Independence hung, among other things, on the outcome of the Pennsylvania Revolution. Again the combination of the two sets of revolutions in furnishing the issue on which the Loyalist party was developed is important.

In short, just as in connection with the early stages, the com-

plexity and practical perplexities of the imperial question should be emphasized, so in the later stages the strategy and tactics of the American leaders in organizing the separated communities into an American community, and in reorganizing these separate-united communities themselves should receive especial attention.

I have spent my time chiefly on subject-matter, its organization and emphasis. As to specific methods of presentation, I have no novelty to offer. Much of the general plan would have to be presented in lecture form. But the syllabus device is available for connecting up the plan of treatment outlined by the lectures with extensive reading and with intensive development of special points by written papers by the students. On the points which I have suggested for emphasis, the literature available for reading and for report work is somewhat unevenly distributed. There is a considerable body of such material in reference to the raising of the imperial question; and a very good beginning, at least, on the subject of the intra-provincial revolutions; less, on the features I have suggested concerning the conduct of the dispute between 1767 and 1773.

As a final point with reference to the above-suggested features of emphasis in the treatment of this period, I believe that they are especially adapted to college treatment, because of the opportunity of correlation with courses in the allied social sciences. In connection with courses in economics and in politics, a more elaborate analysis may be undertaken, and a greater sweep of co-ordinating factors in a broad complex movement may be brought out than is possible at previous stages of study. The result ought to be a more discriminating appreciation of the circumstances, both of separation from Great Britain and of the character of the institutions with which we began our formally independent and incipiently national life.

DISCUSSION

JESSIE C. EVANS, William Penn High School, Philadelphia: There are only two points which I should like to add to this admirable discussion in the brief time allotted to me.

I wish there were some way of persuading the college professors to acquaint their students with the fact that there are distinct pedagogical problems in teaching history in the High School. Too many bring the attitude of mind acquired in the graduate school to their high school teaching. The result is that their thoughts

are always on the subject-matter and they give little attention to the needs and mental processes of the adolescent boy and girl. Perhaps the increase of schools of education in connection with our universities will in time remedy this matter. To my mind the great point in which high school history work should be differentiated from college work is in making the history serve the purpose of explaining to the young people how our present society came to be as it is. History for history's sake, merely, belongs to the college and the graduate school. The high school student is in that period of youth when his mind is reaching out for explanations of the things he sees about him; he is examining and weighing all things. If the history teacher would more often take advantage of this natural curiosity and make the history class the place where the pupil can be put in touch with current events and shown their origin in the past, the interest of young people in historical study would be greatly increased. My plea, therefore, is that logical scientific study of history should be left to the college and that we should teach in the high school comparatively few topics, selected with the object of interesting the boy and girl in the past through its value in explaining the present. This method, it seems to me, will not only create a live interest in history in a larger number of minds, but will give a content of greater general value to the student.

ALFRED C. BRYAN, High School of Commerce, New York City: The tendency to substitute elective courses in history in the high school for required courses involves a danger that should not be overlooked, the danger of the elimination of all history except the required courses from the secondary school. The cultural aim of history does not appeal to the pupil of secondary school age, and in competition, as an elective subject, with mathematics, science, the modern languages, bookkeeping, stenography and typewriting, in all of which the practical value is apparent, history beyond the required courses will probably be neglected, if not eliminated, especially in the cities. The tendency seems to be well illustrated in the conditions described by Mr. Kaye, in Baltimore, where one course in history is required and a second course is offered as an elective (American and modern European). Very few offer an elective in history. Nor should we expect many pupils of adolescent years to elect history in preference to subjects of more practical value, if the choice is unguided. A course of study recently proposed for New York City high schools requires one unit (five recitations per week for one year) of history and places additional units on the elective list, in contrast to a requirement of three years' work at present. This change, we believe, would prove unfortunate, and, if adopted generally, would set us back materially in our efforts to secure proper recognition of history as a high school subject.

EDMUND S. NOYES, Central High School, Washington, D. C.: The difficulty in maintaining the European history courses, to which Dr. Bryan refers, seems to me to be largely due to what Dr. Knowlton called the "College Incubus." The greater emphasis still laid by the college on ancient history as an entrance requirement places even the fourth year course in American history at a disadvantage, while it leaves little or no place for a course in European history as a college entrance requirement. At the Central High School, Washington, we are radical enough to make the European history a two-year course, and are able to maintain it, and even get some of the boys into it, but not as a college entrance requirement. The fourth year course in American history includes nearly one hundred pupils in a school which graduates about one hundred and fifty. If the college entrance requirements could give us more elbow room, not only in the kind and amount of history that will be accepted, but also in the amount of language and higher mathematics against which history has to compete, we would have no difficulty in filling our history courses.

WILLIAM FAIRLEY, Commercial High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.: The reports we have been hearing present one rather disquieting feature. They indicate a tendency to make the study of more than one year of history in the secondary school a matter of option with the student. They also show, what we are already too familiar with, that an elective in history is almost the last thing a student will choose. If all but one year's study is to be left optional, the outlook is rather alarming for our subject. This leads me to suggest as a possible topic for discussion at one of our meetings the question: Why does history apparently make slight appeal to the average student? Or put in another way: What can we do to make the subject of history more attractive to the student to whom it is presented as an optional? I have learned recently through a friend who is familiar with affairs at Harvard, that under a system which gave very great freedom as to the taking of history courses there, the number of students taking the subject had of late so fallen off that it had been necessary to reduce considerably the number of history instructors. That condition obtained until the outbreak of the great war last summer brought a very marked increase of history students at the opening of the fall term.

ANNIE HELOISE ABEL, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.: When I come to meetings like this one, I am always astonished at the amount of work attempted and presumably accomplished in preparatory school history classes; yet I fail to understand how it is that, if, indeed, such thoroughgoing examination be really made of source material and of reliable authorities, public opinion remains what it always was regarding such a subject as the causes.

of the American War of Independence. Old traditions still hold their places, all our expert teaching to the contrary notwithstanding, and, consequently, something in our methods must assuredly be at fault. My own feeling in the matter is, that real source work is entirely out of place in preparatory school classes. Far better would it be for the teacher, instead of sending the young pupil to waste his time among documents beyond his comprehension, to give to him a few definite and incontrovertible facts that experienced investigators have agreed upon. For instance, have the courage of your convictions and tell him plainly that the colonists were not legally in the right regarding their contention about taxation. Tell him also that the Boston Tea Party was a case of mob violence.

As a matter of fact, I do not believe that a correct understanding of the Revolution of 1776 will ever be possible so long as school boards, in order to develop a pseudo-patriotism, insist upon the observance of Boston Massacre days, Peggy Stewart days, and the like. Such incidents should not be taken out of their proper historical setting or be unduly emphasized. I would not have it understood that, in making these remarks, I am advocating the abandonment of the use of all source material in high school work. I simply wish to disparage its use as a means of getting first hand and positive information. There are some documents that every American child ought to know and know well. One of them is the Declaration of Independence, familiarity with which ought not to rest upon spread-eagle Fourth of July orations.

In conclusion, I would ask why should we seek to be so very magnanimous in our treatment of George III. He richly deserves all the adverse criticism that has ever been meted out to him, and more. His obstinacy and love of power were as much a menace to freedom at home as on the Atlantic seaboard. The colonial attitude, it is true, did not have the support of legal theory or practice, but it was thoroughly in line with English constitutional development, was eminently progressive, and has abundantly justified itself, not only in the subsequent history of the United States, but also in the present colonial policy of the British Empire.

THE CONTENT OF THE COURSE IN EUROPEAN HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By WILLIAM E. LINGELBACH
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

Discussions of the content and method of the history courses in the various stages of our educational system have become perennial phenomena. According to some the subject is threadbare and devoid of interest. In my present state of mind I would agree that nothing new could easily be said about it. I would not, however, agree that it is threadbare or uninteresting. Any live subject must undergo constant change and adaptation to new conditions, and ours with its intensely human interests, is farthest from being an exception. There is, moreover, too little recognition on the part of a great many, of the significance of this so-called perennial problem. We are so apt to forget that our discussions and decisions affect the study and training of over one million children, future citizens of the country. It is a matter of tremendous consequence whether we accept or reject the opinions of some of our administrators in education that the history, as at the present time taught our children, has no value whatsoever. If it has not, then we are under obligations to stop the awful waste of time and misdirected effort. It is the duty of the teachers and writers of history to answer the question of the commissioner of Massachusetts, "Why teach history?" or the equally direct challenge of the late Dr. Jacobs, superintendent of our Philadelphia schools, "What good has the history taught you ever been to you?" We can't rely on the fact that tradition, precedent, and a congenial, perhaps better complacent, contentment with things as they are, will suffice. Administrators, trustees, and taxpayers demand reasons for the expenditure of the millions in time and money devoted to instructions in history. Unless we supply these reasons, the average layman, the parent and the pupil is apt to be guided in his attitude toward history by the opinion of those in charge of the administration of our schools and educational system.

Fortunately historians in this country have been exceptionally alive to the need of the careful study of the problem. Over twenty years ago, the work in this direction was inaugurated by the National Educational Association through the appointment of a committee to deal with history, civil government and economics. It met in Madison and is known as the Madison Conference. Among the names appended to its report in 1892 are those that have since been intimately associated with the progress of historical teaching and writing in this country. This was followed by the committee of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in 1895, and in the next year by the Columbia Conference of six leading eastern universities. That year also marked the appointment of the Committee of Seven by the American Historical Association in response to a request from the National Educational Association for the co-operation of associations in different fields of instruction.

The report of this committee has had a widespread influence. Its findings were generally accepted not only by the schools in the preparation of the school curriculum, but by colleges and universities in standardizing entrance requirements. After some years, objections to particular phases of the report became sufficiently serious to lead to the appointment by the Association of the Committee of Five, to be followed more recently by the Committee of Eight on history in elementary schools.

In the mean time there has developed a nation wide discussion of history studies. Special committees of the National Educational Association added their reports to numberless papers, syllabi, discussions and resolutions of national and local societies, not to mention the establishment of magazines and the publication of special works; all evidence of a steadily increasing interest and intelligent study of our subject. Indeed, I question if the teachers of any other subject have so excellent a journal as the *History Teachers' Magazine* or so scholarly and interesting a compendium on the teaching of their subject as have we in the recent work by Professor Johnson on the *Teaching of History*. In the face of all this, critics cannot but admit that whatever the faults in the teaching of history to-day, they do not exist because of indifference or neglect on the part of those engaged in the work. Content and method have received earnest and careful study. 'It may not always

have been so progressive or even intelligent as some would wish, but a little conservatism is a good thing.

Returning to the development of the history course in the high schools, the report of the Committee of Seven was, as I said before, epoch-making. It marked the first attempt by a national organization to make a systematic study of the whole question. It recommended the well-known four years' course in history for secondary schools, namely

1st year—Ancient History to 800 A.D.

or 814 A.D.

or 843 A.D.

2nd year—Medieval and Modern History,

3rd year—English History,

4th year—American History and Civil Government,

with specific modifications where the course was less than four years. Ten pages of the report were devoted to the claims of history, its value and place on the secondary school program. It also defined a unit of history as "one year of historical work wherein the study is given five times a week or two years of historical work wherein the study is given three times a week." The findings of the Committee of Seven were gradually accepted by our leading secondary schools and the curriculum adjusted to the four-year course in history. Despite this, however, considerable dissatisfaction developed, which found expression in individual protests till the demands of the Headmasters Association, combined with others, led to the appointment of a new committee, the Committee of Five. This committee expressed its confidence in the recommendations of the Committee of Seven, but proposed a course "which," so reads the report, "we believe on the whole better than the old and which, we think, will suit the needs of schools ready to take up seriously the study of modern history." English history to 1760, with the chief facts of general European history to the seventeenth century, was put in the second year in the place of medieval and modern, and for the third year a course on modern history was recommended, including such introductory matter concerning later medieval institutions and the beginnings of the modern age as seem wise and desirable, and giving a suitable treatment of English history from 1760.

This concession to the demand for a greater emphasis on the

more recent period has not been seized upon as eagerly as was expected by some. According to Professor Johnson, "Reports received in 1914 from about 600 schools seemed to indicate that, while about 40 of these schools were disregarding altogether the block system, of the remainder 510 offered ancient history; 456 European history; 348 English history, and 473 American history.

How much of this adherence to the courses recommended by the older committee is due to the existence of many excellent texts and to the fact that colleges and universities in their entrance requirements recognize the grouping into Ancient, Medieval and Modern, English, and American, it is difficult to say. It is evident, moreover, that by taking all the schools, that is the rural and town high schools, and grouping them without distinction with the large city high schools, all evidence of a possible tendency in one direction or another among the leaders is largely lost or submerged. Thus it would be interesting to know what class of schools have disregarded altogether the recommendations of the Committee of Seven.

With the idea of testing somewhat the significance of the statistics, the following questionnaire, drawn up to throw into relief the comparative emphasis put upon ancient and modern history, and the amount of time devoted to European history since 1815, was sent out to the leading city schools of the country—

I. History course:

Year	Subject	Period Covered	Elective or Required
First			
Second			
Third			
Fourth			

II. What percentage of the pupils enrolled *in the school this term* are studying each of the subjects mentioned above? What is their course? (i.e., Ancient History—15%—College Preparatory and Commercial.)

III. What proportion of the time devoted to *non-American* history is given to *a.* The period since 1700? *b.* The period since 1815? *c.* Current events?

IV. Do you make the attempt throughout the course to stress those topics which help to an explanation of recent history and present problems? Give reasons for your answer.

V. What devices, if any, do you use to make pupils keep up with current history?

- VI. May a pupil be graduated from any of the courses in your school without history?
- VII. Without any but American history?
- VIII. Does the arrangement of your course please you? If not, what changes should you like to make?
- IX. What preparation have your instructors had for the teaching of *history*?

The answers point to the conclusion that among some of the most progressive schools the drift is away from the program of the Committee of Seven toward a much greater emphasis on modern history.

PROPORTION OF TIME DEVOTED TO THE VARIOUS UNITS

	KIND OF HISTORY REQUIRED				ELECTIVE TIME			Less than ½ yr.	Omitted
	Ac.	Voc.	Ac.	Voc.	1 yr.	½ yr.	¼ yr.		
Ancient									
5000 B.C. }	12	5	15	13	24	6	1	1	4
800 A.D. }									
Modern									
Since 1700	7	8	18	12	13	16	3	3	3
Recent									
Since 1815	3	4	20	16	1	12	15	6	2
American	10	11	17	12	26	2	..	..	1
Current Events	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	22	5

Similar results, it will be remembered, were obtained by Professor Knowlton in his investigation a little over a year ago of history in the secondary schools of our particular district, and by Professor Kelsey in his study of the tendency in history teaching in the colleges and universities.

In addition to the tendency toward modern history, the replies to the questionnaire, as well as the numerous papers and discussions in recent years, indicate a demand for a change of emphasis in favor of social and economic matters. Nearly all the replies to our questionnaire show this, as well as a decidedly affirmative answer to Question IV. "Do you make the attempt throughout the course to stress those topics which help to an explanation of recent history and present problems? Give reasons for your answer."

But for some this tendency is too slow. "New educational ideals," we are told, have developed, which call for a drastic re-

vision both of the content and the method of history in the secondary schools. The advocates of these radical changes are as a rule not affected by tradition or much veneration for the past. They claim that the approach to the subject must be solely from the standpoint of present needs. Their supreme test of each and every subject is "does it function" in developing efficiency or preparing for citizenship? Men like Mr. Kingsley, of the N. E. A., would apply the knife ruthlessly to all subjects that do not show a distinct influence in increasing efficiency in the affairs of daily life.

This is, of course, extreme. On the other hand who can read the entertaining article by Professor Edwin R. Slosson entitled "A Strange Visitor at School," and not be impressed by the remoteness of much of the history as taught, from anything practical; or not be ashamed of the absolute fallacies and ridiculous half-truths too often taught. Indeed, in the face of such conditions, there are perhaps real reasons inherent in history as taught to cause the alarm expressed last year by our vice-president, Miss Evans, before this body in an address on "The Social Viewpoint in the Teaching of History." The address was later submitted as part of a report to the N. E. A. and the sentences referred to read as follows: "There is a growing danger that the traditional history course will only be permitted to the college preparatory student. I visited, the other day, one of the largest high schools in the country and found that the majority of the students took no history at all! The new definitions of culture and the new demands for efficiency are causing very severe tests to be applied to any subjects which would hold its own in our schools."

Of real danger that history is losing ground there seems to me very little evidence. It is true that vocational studies are crowding in on the program. In certain places, notably in the technical schools, the pressure has been felt for some time. Besides history "is facing the vigorous competition, not only from other branches of study, such as science, but also from other social studies whose claims are increasingly insistent." But despite this, the results of recent investigations all indicate that history is not only holding its own, but gaining ground. In the report of the committee of the N. E. A. on Social Studies, we read, "History has long occupied the center of the stage among the social studies of the high school. Recently the tendency has been to increase the amount of history

offered until, in most of the large high schools, it comprises a full four-year course." Indeed, it is the very fact that history has so large a hold on the public educational system that the call for a revision of method and content in the teaching of the subject is there urged. Thus, "No one has yet demonstrated with any degree of finality just why girls should be encouraged to study mathematics, or what should be the controlling aims of the study of Latin. These matters still belong in the domain of enduring faiths; but the case of history study is rendered serious because of the growing popularity of the subject on the one hand, and the obvious need of a more adequate social education on the other" (p. 97).

But even if there is no danger that history is losing ground in our schools, no one is more ready to revise both the content and the method of our subject than is the historian, provided always, however, that a real need for such a revision exists. Indeed, in various ways historians have been working on the problem in its most recent phases, and it is safe to say that if the progressive element in the National Educational Association can convince educators of the soundness of their program, history will not be the last of the subjects to adapt itself to the "new demands," especially where it affects that large element of our high school pupils who do not go to college. In such cases the demand for a greater emphasis, not only upon social and economic development, but of the later period as well, seems sound. But to meet this demand is not as simple as it seems. Many things until now included in our history courses must be eliminated altogether or reduced in order to find room for the new. That this is a problem of greater difficulty than our friends, the administrators, realize is evident. Furthermore, it is to be hoped that historians will devote themselves to the study of the problem with all seriousness, so that if it has to be met it will be met in the same scholarly and intelligent manner that has characterized the readjustment and revisions in the past.

And if I may in conclusion digress a moment from the strict confines of my theme, I would say that these demands for revision and the tendency toward a greater interest and therefore emphasis upon modern history are not incidental or local in character. They represent a movement extending beyond the United States into every country where history constitutes a part of the educational curriculum. Thus an even stronger drift toward the later field has been

going on in European countries. In an investigation of the subject for a paper before the American Historical Association, I found, for example, that the increase in the number of hours devoted to Ancient, Medieval and Modern History in German Universities between 1889 and 1909 was 26, 66 and 163 hours respectively. The result, moreover, is based on statistics of courses scheduled under history and does not include the other social sciences, like politics, economics and sociology, where the development has been even more rapid. The same tendency is seen in France and England, though not in so marked a degree. In the United States evidence pointing in the same direction may be found by an examination of the subjects for the Ph.D. thesis, compiled each year by Professor Jameson. The list reveals in a really striking manner the increasing attraction of the later period for historical research. The secondary school curriculum has been in the main conservative, but here too, as noted above, signs of the times are not wanting. Thus in one of our largest and most advanced city high schools I find the following course in Social Science:

First year (first half)—Community Civics.

“ “ (second half)—European History to 1700.

Second year (first half)—European History, 1700 to present.

“ “ (second half)—English History.

Third year—United States History.

Fourth year—Economics.

In view of these facts historians must recognize the need of serious co-operation with administrators and others in charge of the school curriculum in order to obtain results most closely in harmony with the tendency of the age. To the administrator, on the other hand, a word of warning may not be out of place against a revision of the content of history, as now found in the text-books, by persons extremely enthusiastic about the so-called new education, but altogether untrained in historical science and therefore unfit to work out an adequate readjustment.

THE CONTENT OF THE COURSE IN EUROPEAN HISTORY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

WHAT UNITS SHOULD BE REQUIRED? ON WHAT PRINCIPLE SHOULD TOPICS TO BE TAUGHT WITHIN THOSE UNITS BE SELECTED?

By HELEN L. YOUNG

HUNTER COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY

It has seemed to me that the present criticism of the European history course in secondary schools springs largely from three sources: 1. From a lack of definiteness and agreement as to the purpose of the course. 2. From a failure to limit the course so as to make it in scope commensurate with the time available. 3. From a failure to present the course in such a way as to make the past real to the students.

First, as to the purpose of the course. As a matter of fact, the purpose of all history teaching is constantly changing, and each of the changing styles is adapted to the state of society which produced it. The Eighteenth Century conception of history for schools was a general survey of the world, particularly of the ancient world. So little was thought of history as a possible aid to the understanding of the present, that the pupil's own country might easily be neglected. Rollin did not know French history, and his successors complained that young Frenchmen knew all of the consuls of Rome, but were often ignorant of the kings of France. Napoleon used history in the schools for the purpose of instructing French youth in their duty to the state, and of arousing their patriotic devotion. In the long struggle to throw off the domination of the French emperor, other countries were driven to the use of his methods, with the result that loyalty to the king or nation came to be looked upon as an important aim of history teaching. Consequently, there was a general swinging away from ancient history in the schools, and it came to be generally agreed that history should be taught with special reference to the nation and to the present. The aspects of history emphasized at this time were almost exclusively political and military.

No one seems to have found fault with this method until about

the middle of the Nineteenth Century, when Biedermann called attention to its defects. He declared that the "mere narrating of events overloaded the memory much to the confusion of the understanding." He also raised the question: "Shall history in school merely describe actions, and as performers of them, great personalities, or shall it occupy itself with the general concerns of a time and people?" "Shall it deal exclusively or chiefly with external, so-called political history" (war, battles, treaties of peace, conquests, distribution of provinces, generals, diplomats, etc.) or "shall it deal with the inner life of the people?" "Shall it present events in mere succession or in their organic relations?" Biedermann's answer to these questions was that history in the schools should be the study of a civilization. From his time on more attention was given to this side of history, and the so-called *Kulturgeschichte* developed.

The remarkable industrial development of the Nineteenth Century called attention to the importance of economic and industrial factors in history. The rise of democratic government in Europe and in America made it seem desirable that those, who, in the future, are to share in the direction of government, should understand the past of that organization, in the belief that a knowledge of its past will be useful for its guidance in the future. A strong desire for social efficiency also arose, and with it there developed the belief that a knowledge of society's past will make for its rapid improvement in the future. All of these successive developments have had their effect upon contemporary conviction as to the purpose of history in the schools.

Articles and books on history teaching give the conclusion that to-day the modest aim of school history is to discipline the memory, imagination, and judgment; to teach the nature of historical evidence and to fix the habit of weighing evidence; to give training in the use of books; to furnish entertainment; to set up for conscious imitation, ideals of conduct, patriotism, and social service; "to inculcate practical knowledge that can be turned to account in the every-day concerns of life"; "to give to young people, earlier than life can give it, some knowledge of human nature"; to give them a knowledge of the social organism of which they are a part, and to teach them to play the rôle of a good citizen in that organism,—in a word, to make the world intelligible to the rising

generation, in the hope that they may use the knowledge gained by a study of the world's past for its improvement.

The world to be made intelligible through school instruction in history is, in general, the social and political world. History may be likened to a stream composed of our knowledge of human development reaching in an ever-increasing volume from the immemorial past to the present. In it are to be found all the elements of to-day's society, in all stages of their development. We cannot study this volume in its entirety, but we can cut out cross sections from it, so as to include within them society's chief transformations, and we can study each of these in detail. In this way we can trace, even in a limited time, the development of the social organism of to-day. Thus, the mode of procedure is obviously to exhibit individual societies in action, and, since it is the present world that is to be made intelligible, to exhibit those societies in such a way as to make clear the development of the institutions which exist to-day. It has become almost "an educational dogma that school history must exclude everything in the past which has not left traces sufficiently enduring to be found in the life of the present." Yet to do this is not so easy as one might think, for not one of the present survivals or influences can be rightly understood except by considering its entire setting. "To-day's phenomena are not enough to base sound conclusions on. The present situation in the Balkans demands for its comprehension not only a study of ethnological characters in some of the most intricately mixed populations of Europe, but a knowledge of 500 years of Turkish history, 1,000 years of Bulgarian and Servian history, and more than 1,600 years of Rumanian and Greek. The American negro, the Russian Jew, the many other ethnic elements which go to make up our wonderfully composite population, each requires the patient mastery of a separate history for its proper understanding." In fact, is there any important movement in the past of Europe which does not have a direct or indirect effect upon institutions of that continent to-day? It is, however, manifestly impossible, in a limited course, to treat all of these elements in detail. We must, therefore, choose what to present, and we must choose in such a way as to fulfill the purpose of our course, that is, to present the past of Europe in such a way as to make the present European world intelligible to our youth.

Two methods of choice are possible. 1. We may present European history in a general way. This method has already been tried and is now generally rejected as inadequate and unsatisfactory. 2. We may, as has already been suggested, choose those cross-sections of European history which seem to contain the chief transformations of society within that field, and considering these as the units of the course, develop each with a wealth of definite fact and illustration that will make it a reality. The "facts used must be historical. This implies some consciousness of historical evidence, and that consciousness must be definitely developed. The idea of differences in peoples, customs, and institutions must be emphasized." The importance of chronology must not be overlooked. It lies at the basis of history and furnishes it with its framework, and the failure to grasp the significance of this is to miss the clue to the power to group events in their natural order and in their causal sequence. Finally, and most especially, we must make the past intelligible,—that is, make it real.

With these considerations in mind, let us turn again to our problem: The content of the course in European history in secondary schools, what units should be required? In answer to this question, I propose that a course of three years of history, with at least three recitations a week in the first two years, and five recitations in the third, be required in secondary schools. I am aware that this is to ask for an amount less than has been proposed by either the Committee of Seven, or of Five. It is, however, so far as I know, more than is provided for in the curricula of the vast majority of our secondary schools. It seems to me that it is better to plan our course for conditions as they actually exist, and then modify the plan as conditions improve, rather than to plan for an ideal situation. The first two years of this course should be devoted to the study of European history from the time of primitive man to the present. The third year should be devoted to American history and civics. This completes the required course, but for those students who are preparing for college, or who wish for more history, a fourth year course in ancient history or in English history should be provided. By this plan modern history, that is European and American, will come in the first, second and third years of the high school course, so that more students will have the opportunity of studying conditions in the world of to-day,

than when it is placed in the third and fourth years of the course.

For the two years course in European history I propose the following subjects as units, basing my choice on the supposition that they represent the principal transformations of society within the limits of this course. The amount of time to be devoted to the topics is not at all equal. That must be worked out later.

1. Primitive man.

2. The Mediterranean world from the earliest times to 476 A.D. This is intended to include Egypt, Syria, Greece, and Rome, and should emphasize the contribution each has made to the society of to-day.

3. The empire as established by Charlemagne and reorganized by the later German emperors. It includes the system of government, conditions of living, education, commerce, etc. The struggle between the emperors and the popes should be presented in so far as it affected conditions in Germany and in Italy.

4. The medieval church; its position, the claims of the popes; the points at issue in the struggle between the popes and the various national rulers. Practically, the same contest goes on between the popes and the different kings, so that the subject may be treated as one great movement, varying in the individual countries only in matters of detail.

5. Feudalism as illustrated by its development in one country, preferably in France, since it reached its greatest perfection there.

6. The development of the several nations each under a centralized government.

(a) The absolute monarchy as illustrated by the history of France to the Eighteenth Century.

(b) The limited monarchy as illustrated by the history of England to the Eighteenth Century.

7. The Renaissance. To be treated as one movement, sweeping from Italy northward across western Europe.

8. The Protestant Revolt through the Thirty Years' War. This also is to be treated as one movement. It is intended that the religious wars shall be dealt with in the briefest possible way, but the Thirty Years' War should be treated in greater detail, since the settlement reached at its close long remained the basis of international relations in Europe.

9. Geographical discoveries and the expansion of Europe; colonies

and colonial problems; the struggle for colonial and commercial supremacy, to the Treaty of Paris, 1763.

End of the first year's work.

10. Europe in the later Eighteenth Century; types of government; social, economic and religious conditions; the scientific and intellectual awakening, and the resulting criticism of political and social institutions.

11. The French Revolution,—in France and beyond, together with the Napoleonic era. This includes social and political reforms in France, Napoleon's work in organizing them into a definite system, and in carrying them into other countries.

12. The Industrial Revolution in England and on the Continent, with the resulting development of commerce and cities, the rise in importance of the middle and lower classes, and the consequent development of democracy; the growth of antagonism between capital and labor.

13. Reorganization of Europe by the Congress of Vienna upon reactionary principles; the successive struggles to overthrow this system, and the establishment of liberal and democratic governments in the several states of Europe.

14. Further operation of the principle of nationality as shown in the creation of a united Italy, a united Germany, in the development of the Balkan States, and in the dual monarchy of Austro-Hungary.

15. Nineteenth Century expansion of Europe in Asia and in Africa. The Near Eastern Question, the Far Eastern Question; industrial and commercial interests.

16. The movement to internationalize and socialize Europe. The development of the principle of arbitration as opposed to militarism. Social legislation in Germany and in England.

These are the units which I wish to include in the course in European history. The number has been purposely limited so as to make it possible to teach each in great detail, in the belief that only in this way can the pupil reconstruct the past and gain a real understanding of the present institutions of government and society. On the other hand, it is held, that these topics contain all of the great transformations of European society. It is not intended that one topic should necessarily be completed before another is taken up. For example, it is not desirable to treat Number

6 (the development of separate governments to the Eighteenth Century) entirely, before taking up Number 7 (the Renaissance), and Number 8 (the Protestant Revolt). Chronological order should be respected, yet the continuity of the one line of development should be made clear.

The second part of our problem is expressed in the words: On what principle should topics to be taught within those units be selected? The answer is, on the principle and for the purpose of making the units a reality to the student. This principle lies at the basis of the choice of topics, the selection of a text-book, of collateral reading, of maps, diagrams, and all sorts of illustrative material, and also of the method of presenting the subject.

As Professor Johnson has said: To realize the past is difficult. "School history, to be made real and kept real, should begin with realities which can either be observed directly, or which can be presented directly, and should continue throughout the school course to provide frequent appeals to such materials." "In generalities there is danger. Details are necessary." Verbal descriptions add to the sense of reality. "Visualization helps the student to realize the past, and there are many aids to visualization." Actual remains, models, maps, charts, diagrams,—all aid visualization. "If a sense of reality is secured, the student may be led from a consideration of details to generalized history, yet even then there is need for particulars, and even trivialities." History is based upon facts and there is no way of avoiding the learning of facts. No generalization can be of value unless it is based upon an accurate knowledge of detailed facts. Really, is not memory the basis of every intellectual operation, not only of student days, but of life? Why then, should school history be so ruthlessly criticised because it requires the memorizing of dry facts? Undoubtedly, much of the difficulty lies in the circumstance that there are so many facts to be learned in the time available, that there is often no opportunity to go beyond them and see what their real significance is. Moreover, facts tend to seem less dry, if the student feels that they are realities. The answer to this criticism is not to eliminate the learning of facts, but to make the facts realities.

One of the most important aids to making the past real is the text-book, and much depends upon its character. The first consideration is accuracy; others are definiteness, and the point of view.

As for the other qualities that ought to be considered in choosing a text-book, much depends upon the library and historical laboratory that the school in question possesses. For the school that has an adequate reference library and sufficient illustrative material, may be chosen a brief text-book, "which will summarize, refresh the memory, fix dates, and in general help the student to keep his bearings." The elaboration of the text will be accomplished through the use of collateral readings. There are many advantages in this method. It may be used to familiarize the student with the sources, and may be employed to develop his ability to criticize material and judge its value. It also gives him a vivid idea of how histories are written. Source problems will be found to arouse the student's most intense interest. Another advantage from the use of collateral readings is that it trains the student in the critical use of many books, and should give him an appreciative taste for the great histories that are also great literature.

All schools do not have the equipment necessary to the use of this method. For them may be selected a text-book rich in detail and in quotations from the sources. By using a text of this type, even without collateral readings, it is possible to reproduce the atmosphere of the past and to create a sense of its reality. But the advantages to be gained from the use of collateral readings is so great that it is to be hoped that no school board will feel too poor to provide the really small amount of money necessary to secure a tolerable reference library.

To sum up the whole matter: the difficulty with the present course in European history in secondary schools seems to be due to a lack of agreement as to the purpose of the course, and to a failure to limit its scope so as to make it commensurate with the time available. If we can agree that the purpose of the course is to familiarize our youth with present conditions in Europe through a study of its past as well as to give them certain definite intellectual training, we may limit the course so as to make its proper presentation possible by choosing out of Europe's past, those societies which present the chief transformations in its development, and, by presenting them in a detail which will make the past real, give to the student the understanding at which we aim.¹

¹ Acknowledgment of indebtedness to Henry Johnson, "The Teaching of History," and to the numerous articles upon history in secondary schools that have appeared in the "History Teachers' Magazine," is gratefully made.

THE CONTENT OF THE COURSE IN EUROPEAN HISTORY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE INFLUENCE OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

By ALFRED C. BRYAN

HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, NEW YORK CITY

The present is a period of scrutiny into all the subjects now embraced in the curriculum of the secondary school, a time of value-testing, not only to determine what phases of each subject shall be taught, but in some cases to decide whether the subject itself shall receive a place. History, along with other subjects, is summoned to judgment. Aims in history teaching that hitherto have been assumed to warrant the inclusion of that subject are ruthlessly brushed aside. The college entrance examination, patriotism, citizenship, the racial inheritance, culture, the power to think, to reason and to judge, character formation, general social efficiency, while commendable objects in the main, are yet pronounced inadequate as aims. Moreover, it is said, the subject-matter and the method employed have not demonstrated in many cases that they do or can produce the quality at which they aim. It is not that these aims are undesirable, or wrong, but that they are inadequate; our analysis has not gone far enough. We have set out, we are told, from the subject-matter, from the college entrance examination, or from desirable qualities in composite men and women, whereas our analysis should start with the desired specific social product.

Accepting this re-statement of the aim, let us examine some of its implications. What are the qualities desired in this social product? They will obviously vary with the purpose of the individual in life, but for most individuals the desired qualities which are contributed by educational agencies under public control have been classed by several educational theorists under the headings: (1)

Vocational capacity, (2) personal culture (permanent æsthetic and intellectual interests), and (3) citizenship. If these qualities arise from the life purpose of the individual, and if they are to determine in large measure the character of his education, the necessity of the early determination of that purpose and of the early choice of appropriate educational means becomes manifest. The difficulty of the early determination of purpose is appreciated and is being grappled with. This question is aside from our immediate concern, however. But the corollary that the educative process will be determined solely by that purpose, does concern us greatly as secondary school teachers. The writer interprets it to imply a narrowing of the purpose and scope of secondary education. While this result does not of necessity follow, ample facts are at hand, particularly in vocational schools, to indicate that the tendency has become quite definite. We shall recur to this point later in the paper.

By their ability to contribute to the desired qualities, all the subjects of the secondary school curriculum are being tested and judged. We feel that history contributes liberally to all of them, and particularly to personal culture and citizenship. Dr. David Snedden expresses his conviction of its value in the two last-mentioned fields. [Hist. Teachers' Mag., Nov., 1914.] Dr. Judd finds it the most broadly valuable in the high school curriculum next to English. [Judd—Psychology of H. S. Subjects.] Numerous writers on pedagogy express the same general view. These opinions of educational theorists receive a kind of popular corroboration in the growing interest in history as manifested in the extension of history work in elementary and high schools generally throughout the country [Russell—Hist. Teachers' Mag., Dec., 1914] and in the increasing demand upon libraries for historical literature [Horn—Teachers' College Record, Sept., 1915].

While the feeling is general that history has a broad and valuable field in secondary education, there is voiced, nevertheless, a growing dissatisfaction with both the material and method of history instruction in high schools to-day. Many students of education have expressed this view in the press in recent months.

The secondary school course in history at present in use may be outlined as follows: United States history and government is almost universally given one year, and in many cases is required by state law. Probably the majority of schools give an additional

year of Greek and Roman history under the traditional influence of the college, exerted since the Civil War [Russell—Hist. Teachers' Mag., Dec., 1914]. Probably, too, a majority of the schools which have a third year of history, and many which have only two years, devote a year to English history, likewise largely due to college influence. A much smaller number have given a year (and still fewer, two years) to general history or to European history in place of Greek and Roman or English. This diversification and extension is still proceeding as the place of the secondary school in education is being more fully worked out and as the recommendations of the Committee of Seven, the Committee of Five, and other committees receive further recognition.

But the line of advance from this point on is by no means clear. Some think that much of the material and all of the organization of that material now in use should be discarded and a new analysis and grouping should be made, one better suited to the more purposeful conception of the educative process. Starting from his contemporary environment, the student, in this view, should proceed to other assimilable aspects of human life, partly historical, partly sociological or whatnot, regardless of historical unity, of chronology, or aught else but its usefulness to the predetermined purpose. Call it history, social science, or what you will, it would when assembled represent a new and distinct body of facts which would have to be carefully selected, estimated, organized and tested.

It matters not for our purpose to-day what we may think of the ultimate possibilities of this line of thought. It is evidently a field for experts and experimentation, and is already receiving practical trial in skilled hands. Perhaps a few years hence it may demand our consideration as a practical program for general use. But it does serve in most forcible manner to call our attention to-day to some of the weaknesses of the material which we are using. Complexity, want of real value, remoteness from the experience of the student, lack of interest, over-emphasis of matters political and constitutional, over-emphasis of form or machinery and neglect of function, abstraction rather than concreteness, over-working of memory and failure to develop thought and imagination—these faults and others are charged against our teaching of history. To be sure, some of these arise from wrong methods, but yet they have a close relation to the material. It is not necessary to discuss

these faults in detail. Is it not becoming the consensus of opinion that the object of our study in a broad sense is the present; that the more closely our periods of study are associated with the present, the more interest and meaning they call forth? Is it not likewise true that the commercial, industrial and social phases of history link up more closely with the students' experience than the constitutional? If these views are coming to be accepted generally, two lines of modification of our history program are indicated.

Reference was made above to a tendency to narrow the purpose and scope of secondary education. Certain facts seem to indicate that cultural training is becoming gradually less in vocational schools and in vocational courses in general high schools. This occurs to some extent from the over-crowding of the course of study, and educational authorities naturally hesitate to weaken a school in the line of its special work. The cultural subject, frequently history, disappears. It may eke out an existence as an elective for a time, but the outcome is the same. Likewise the tendency to reduce the number of hours of prepared work forces some subjects from the required schedule to the elective. The extension of the unit system has the same effect of increasing the elective courses. The demand for greater flexibility in the high school course is met by reducing some required courses to electives.

All these tendencies usually result in a reduction of the amount of work for graduation and consequently a competition for pupils occurs between the elective courses. The courses concerned in this competition are usually parts of the foreign language, mathematics, science, history and sometimes economics programs. The elections of most importance are commonly made at the beginning of the second high school year, since nearly all the work of the first year is frequently required. Several considerations determine the student's choice. He is apt to estimate the practical value of the foreign language, mathematics and science more highly than that of history. If a three unit elective has not been undertaken in the first year, it must be begun in the second. The choice lies between foreign languages and science. If it has been begun in the first year, it should be continued in the second year. Perhaps the student feels that at least one (maybe two) two-year electives should be begun in the second year. The choice would likely fall on language, science, or mathematics, depending upon his choice in

the first year, and his desire for these subjects. Some history is required in the course, whereas he may have none of the three mentioned subjects unless it is elected. His program for the second year is thus filled. He pursues the required work in history in the third and fourth years, and clearly will not recur to an optional second year course in history, even though his elective hours were not already filled by continuing his previously-begun electives.

These causes have not only operated to check the extension of the study of history, but they have already caused an actual decline, for these conditions will be found to obtain in most vocational high schools, in most vocational courses in general (or cosmopolitan) high schools, and in many general course high schools as well. In two and three-year course high schools these conditions are usual and probably necessary. Again, since usually one-half and in large cities about three-fourths of the total school enrolment is in the first and second years of the high school, this part of the student population has little or no opportunity to study history, inasmuch as American history is most frequently placed in the senior year and the other history courses immediately precede it for the sake of continuity in the study.

The tendency to reduce or eliminate history may not be as far-reaching as we suspect. An exact ascertainment of the facts both in reference to large city high schools and generally to representative high schools throughout the country will have to await the collection of more complete information. If the facts when ascertained bear out the impression indicated, believing strongly as we do in the cultural and citizenship values of history (and, I would add, vocational or practical value also, for I think those subjects from which we draw our knowledge of man himself in his many-sided activities are of most practical value), we should strongly combat this tendency. To-day these facts should influence the structure of the courses which we suggest.

One other phase of the subject under discussion should receive attention. This, too, grows out of the movement for vocational education. The practice of substituting one aspect of history, e.g., commercial or industrial history, for broader historical work in vocational high schools is growing. We cannot object to these courses, rather we encourage them, as purely vocational work, supplementing broader historical study. But when given without

historical background and as a substitute for well-balanced historical study, they must result in a distorted and wholly inadequate view of a movement and have comparatively little value as history study. Would it not be much more desirable to allot the same amount of time to a general study of a more limited period? Is not our guild as a whole in large measure responsible for this practice? Have we not by tardy recognition and utilization of the commercial, industrial and social elements of history bred the idea that commercial history is for the commercial school and industrial history for the technical school? But can the view be maintained that the commercial, industrial and social aspects of history are less important for any type of high school student than the military or much of the political and constitutional history which we teach?

The information recently gathered by this association in replies to a questionnaire seem to support the views presented in this paper. In the vocational high schools of New York City the trend appears to have been distinctly away from history in the last few years, and increasingly so in the reorganization of these courses on the unit basis, making history more largely elective. The syllabus for the two commercial high schools provides for two years work in history, one and one-half units (seven periods). In one case it is Medieval and Modern and American history; in the other Modern history, starting with the Industrial Revolution, and American history and government. The last-mentioned school has one-half unit elective in Medieval and Modern history down to the Industrial Revolution. Both schools have one-half and one unit respectively in economics required. The technical school syllabus has one and one-half units (seven periods) required in Modern and American history and civics in the industrial course, and one unit (four periods) required in the Manual Training course, with no elective work in the subject. Three high schools follow this syllabus. The Household Science and Art course in girls' high schools (twelve or more schools may give it) has one unit (four periods) of American history and civics required, with one unit elective in history and biography and one-half unit elective in European history. The Homecraft course in one high school has no required history, but it has elective history or biography in three years of the course.

If the elective courses were in fact elected, the situation would

be relieved, but they are not and, in fact, cannot be in any large measure, owing to the small amount of available time and the multiplicity of subjects claiming a share of the student's program. This fact, taken with the additional consideration that the required courses usually come in the later years of the course, has the important result that in the vocational schools of New York, and to a large degree elsewhere, only a small fraction of the students study history at all. In one vocational high school only five per cent. elect history in the second year, and only twenty-three per cent. study history at all of a total enrolment of four thousand. In another vocational high school having an enrolment of over five thousand, only sixteen per cent. study history at all, and these are in the college preparatory course. Another high school having several courses requires of commercial students only civics. The school registers three thousand, one-half of whom are in the commercial course. It offers required or elective courses in history in three years of its work. The per cent. of students now taking it is seventeen. Two and one-half per cent. take economics and fourteen per cent. take civics in addition to the above. In one course only the history of industry is given. One school which offers general and vocational courses with required and elective history shows twenty-nine per cent. in all taking the subject in an enrolment of probably twenty-five hundred. Apparently few elect it. A general high school with a vocational course has ten per cent. of the vocational students in a required senior course. Apparently the ninety per cent. do not elect the subject in previous years, and drop out without so much as a course in American history.

Outside of New York City the same tendency may be observed and it is unmistakable in the large cities. The following figures represent the per cent. of total enrolment registered in history classes in various representative vocational high schools or vocational courses in high schools, located in different cities: 12½, 17, 20, 22, 25, 27, 28, 33. Some do not require American history and show very small percentages taking it.

Too much finality must not be attached to these figures as errors are obvious in the reports from some schools, but while they do not show exact conditions, they seem to point to unavoidable conclusions respecting a part of the high school field.

In general high schools the position of history study seems very favorable. A summary of the figures for all the schools which reported is as follows:

HISTORY COURSE	Number of schools re- porting.	Average per cent. of en- rolment tak- ing history.
Ancient	32	16
Modern	33	13
American	31	11
Total.....Average	32	40

We find some courses offered against which objection may be raised. The value of courses in commercial and industrial history without a background of broader work is very questionable. Likewise the beginning of the study of history with the seventeenth, eighteenth or nineteenth century is of doubtful wisdom, although much depends upon the manner of treatment. Again, the introduction of economics and social science into the high school course without some study of history as a precedent seems largely futile, since these subjects deal with the abstract and depend upon very definite and accurate conceptions involving some difficulty, for which the high school student even in his senior year is scarcely prepared.

The suggestions of this paper which relate to the content of the course in European history may be summed up as follows:

1. Two full units (two years, five periods per week) should be urged as the minimum acceptable time requirement in history for high schools, and the adoption of two and one-half or three units should be advocated.

2. Modifications of the course should be controlled by practical considerations, and recommendation of a highly experimental and at present impracticable program should be avoided.

3. The shifting of emphasis from ancient to modern European history, which seems to have won general support, should be extended.

4. The course in medieval and modern history should be so arranged as to give the bulk of the time to the most recent periods.

5. The advisability of courses starting abruptly with the eighteenth or nineteenth century should be considered, and adaptation suggested..

6. Unrelated courses in commercial and industrial history should be discouraged, and more profitable substitutes recommended.

7. Further reduction of purely military and political history should be made, and material closer to the student's own sphere of experience, taken largely from the commercial, industrial and social aspects of history, should be introduced. A careful testing of the real values of all the material should be made, and only that of outstanding importance and broad relativity should be included.

8. Much of the complex and abstract should be transformed into the simple and concrete. The whole high school course in history needs adaptation to successive stages of training.

9. The tendency of the extension of elective courses, of the reduction of the course of study, and of the unit system to concentrate their effects disadvantageously upon history, should be strongly presented.

10. The tendency of vocational high schools and of vocational courses in general high schools to reduce and, in fact, almost eliminate history should receive careful investigation, and the results, if they warrant it, should be brought to the attention of administrative school officers.

DISCUSSION

SAMUEL B. HOWE, South Side High School, Newark, N. J.: We assume that the primary purpose of the course in European history in secondary schools is to enable our boys and girls to look out upon the world in which they live with a correct perspective of social problems. This can be gained only by tracing in chronological order the evolution of society from primitive man to the present. To remove the time element makes history exactly like denatured coffee, flat and without stimulus. Since two years of the school curriculum at the most are available for such a study, it becomes necessary to limit our attention to a few definitely connected topics and clearly defined phases of the subject. A vast amount of the detail which was formerly thought indispensable to a knowledge of history must be sacrificed to accomplish this end. Many phases of our subject, which no doubt possess not only great informational value, but the power of creating interest in the minds of our students as well, must be resolutely banished from our classes if we are to attempt seriously to train for citizenship through the medium of history. We have no quarrel with military, political, or constitutional history, per se, nor do we minimize their value

or interest; it is Father Time himself who reaps them and binds them together into a sheaf of choice grain for the college or university granary.

Radical schools, referred to by Miss Evans, are generally agreed that the basis of selection of topics should be: What is the direct bearing of this matter on our own world in the year 1915? On this basis the topics outlined by Professor Young seem well chosen, if their treatment constantly brings out the connection between our own civilization and that of the period associated with each topic. Some may differ in regard to the time allotment for such a course. In our own department, where we follow substantially the same progression of subject-matter, we find five periods weekly for two years necessary for an adequate presentation. Dr. Lingelbach is somewhat dubious in regard to the trend indicated by the New England Association committee's report. He sets forth again the scholarly attitude of the college and university toward the secondary school. In elucidating the interesting tabulation of schools which are giving certain courses of study, he admits that ancient history holds the field in advance of modern history and advances as a reason that the classical departments of the secondary schools find ancient history needed to supplement their work. In almost the next sentence he urges that history must not be crowded out or too strongly influenced by the other social sciences. Why this solicitude for the classic languages and this prejudice against other social sciences? He assures me that he is not prejudiced against civics and economics, but favors their introduction into the course, but not at the expense of history. I must confess that I have a sincere hope that the history teachers will more and more recognize the blood kinship between the social sciences. It is all very well to demand four units of straight history, as the Committee of Seven did, but now, after all these years, how many schools give the four units there laid down? How many schools are there which give to their graduates but one year of history work, and that ancient history? As Dr. Bryan has suggested, the great interest of the educational authorities in vocational subjects threatens what we already have. If we can retreat gracefully and gain the help of our allies in economics and civics, we may then entrench ourselves as securely as the Turks seem to have done on the Gallipoli. Will the Brahministical college entrance board forever regard as amusing and ephemeral, the now constantly increasing demand for a differentiation between college preparatory and general secondary courses? The college men say we are tilting against a man of straw when we bring this matter forward. But it is substantial straw, which forces the 90 per cent. in our schools to be led around by the nose by the 10 per cent. The college board must recognize that one unit in history is as good as another, if the work is done honestly, thoroughly, and with as much inspiration

as they wish put on ancient history. How many, many times have splendidly equipped large school departments been informed that their work in history would not be credited for college entrance on the ground that a specific unit outlined by the Committee of Seven was not covered; when the schools in question were offering for credit courses done with far greater efficiency than possible in small schools, which meekly submitted the minimum required by the Committee of Seven. "Men of straw" indeed.

It may be of interest for me to outline the two-year course in European history arranged for the Newark schools. Its aim is to furnish a proper historical background for modern life, recognizing that in the past half century European development has been merged with world development. It is arranged in four term units, and begins in the first term of the sophomore year. The first unit is devoted to (a) those contributions which ancient peoples have made to modern civilization. After considering our debt to the Orient, i.e., to the Egyptians, Chaldeans, Assyrians, Babylonians, Hebrews and Phœnicians, the student is brought face to face with the conflicting ideals of the city states of Athens and Sparta and their respective contributions to world culture. The Greek colony is then presented as the medium for the dissemination of Greek culture, and Alexander and his conquests are emphasized only in so far as they show the merging of Greek with oriental culture. The Romans are studied as conquerors, organizers and empire builders. Emphasis is placed upon their system of law, their architectural and engineering feats, and the shaping of the Christian Church under their influence. The fall of the empire into German hands is emphasized only so far as to bring out the contrast between the German and Roman ideals and to indicate the extent of the influences emanating from each people.

In the second half of the first term the emphasis is placed upon (b) the preëminence of the state and the subordination of the individual thereto. This idea is also injected into the first half term's work, but it is now made much more prominent. The achievements of Charlemagne in the formation of the new Roman Empire form the starting-point and the ideas developed in connection with the study of the medieval church, noting its struggles for temporal power, and in the organization of feudal society. The half year's work ends with a suggestion of the transition from medieval to modern conditions as brought out in the effects of the Crusades, particularly in connection with the rise of towns and the growth of commerce. The term's work closes with a survey of medieval culture. As much of the culture of Greece as is possible is made to center around Pericles, Socrates and Alexander. Augustus and Constantine serve the same purpose in connection with Roman culture. Charlemagne, Richard I. and Gregory VII. personify the great forces at work in the middle ages.

The second unit places emphasis upon (c) the emergence of the individual as a factor in the social and political life. The history now begins to center around the rising states of France and England. Their beginnings are noted and attention is then focused upon the growth of liberty in one and the growing strength of the other until their ideals and interests clash in the Hundred Years' War. This study is followed by a consideration of the decline of the church as shown by the Babylonian Captivity and Great Schism. These events and the Renaissance bring out in sharp contrast the dawning national and individual consciousness of the 13th and 14th centuries and the subordination of the individual which marked the earlier centuries. The Protestant Revolt still further emancipates the individual as it spreads throughout Western Europe. The efforts to check this movement draw attention to Spain under Philip II., the Counter Reformation, and the religious wars in France and Germany. The aims of the Tudor rulers, and the struggles for constitutional liberty under the Stuarts are presented in connection with the progress of the reform movement in England. English and French development as shaped by the Tudors and Stuarts on the one hand, and by Henry IV., Richelieu and Louis XIV. on the other, are now contrasted and the year's work terminates with a survey of the early efforts at world dominion on the part of the states of Europe, especially as they affected North America, carrying this survey to a point where France and England appear as the principal rivals for world dominion about 1750.

This year's work prepares a student for the second year of European history, or if he cannot find time for such a course he is equipped for a proper understanding of American history in the fourth year.

The third unit opens with a résumé and a more detailed survey of (d) the environment in which the 18th century individual finds himself, examining this in its social, political, industrial and commercial aspects, and noting the new ideas at work which give rise to the so-called enlightened despotism. The status of the individual is determined by a comparison of the constitutionalism of England with the absolutism of France. The history of these two countries forms the nucleus about which the discussion centers throughout the greater part of the third year. (e) Then follows a study of the struggle of the individual to shape this environment as it manifested itself in the commercial wars of the 18th century, which closed with the American Revolution and later in the French Revolution, the Napoleonic era and the industrial revolution. In this period the problems of contemporary Europe begin to take shape.

The fourth unit. As the year 1815 seems to mark a convenient period of division between modern and contemporary Europe, this

date is made the point of departure for following the progress of the struggle to the present day, noting how (f) European development finally merges with world development. Metternich is made the central figure of the period immediately following the Congress of Vienna, and the next thirty years to the revolutions of 1848 are presented as a struggle for constitutional government, where the principal gains are to be noted in England rather than on the Continent. Napoleon the Second becomes the central figure in the next period, 1848-1870, and this epoch is marked by the nationalist wars which result in the creation of the present empire of Germany, the kingdom of Italy, and the present form of the dual monarchy of Austro-Hungary. The period since 1870 is considered in its dual aspect of merging European interests with those of Asia and Africa, and a further development of a democratic ideal.

In closing may I present one method of treatment for one of the topics. Let us take the Napoleonic era. It is evident that this topic centers around the life of Napoleon. Collect a number of pictures illustrating events in his life. We have available about fifty such pictures. Have each member of the class write a biographical essay which shall bring in the incident depicted in each illustration. Cite Rose's and the Cambridge Napoleons and other excellent biographical histories for reference. Have several members of the class prepare wall outline maps to illustrate the cartographic changes affected by his influence. Individual maps may be prepared at the desk of each student. Special reports may be given on source readings. Problems should be assigned for class solution based on collateral reading. An analysis of the text or texts should be written in the note-books. Analogies should be drawn between the restrictions of the sea and the commercial rivalries of that era with those of the present war. After the subject has been thus studied from every available point of view, we sum everything up in a rapid fire oral quiz, and then require a written paper testing the information obtained. This is our method of topical treatment. One of my students recently reciting on Roman costume told us that the Roman men wore a "tonic" under their togas. I trust we can all get as trustworthy a tonic under the togas with which we clothe our courses in history. And for the makers of school programs may we set as an ideal general secondary curriculum one consisting each year of one required unit from each of the following groups:

1. English language and literature ;
2. Physical science, including biology, physics and chemistry ;
3. An analytical subject chosen according to the aptitude of the student from mathematics, the classics or modern languages, or vocational subjects ;
4. Social science, including community civics, history and economics.

C. A. HERRICK, Girard College: I am of the opinion, in the first place, that in this discussion too much recognition has been given to the suggestions of those who are not historians and too little to those who have had experience as teachers of history and authors of text-books. Secondly, I feel impelled to make an appeal for the vocational study of history in vocational schools. While this is not all the history which should be studied in such schools, if these schools are to serve their purpose and if history is to find its vital relations to the lives of those being educated, a vocational interpretation and application of it is necessary. Third, I regard as a helpful, constructive recommendation, the suggestion of a limited number of topics for our study of European history, as presented by Professor Young. Such a suggestion looks to definiteness and efficiency in history teaching.

ROBERT A. MAURER, Head, History Department in High Schools, Washington, D. C.: I do not believe it possible for a straight history course to hold its own in a strictly vocational school. The demand in such a school calls for study that will increase the money-making capacity of the pupil, and history will doubtless be generally considered as of little practical value to the boy or girl. However, in the academic schools and in the schools offering a combination of academic, business, mechanical and domestic arts courses, there is little reason to suppose that the various history courses will be abandoned or even supplanted. A present tendency to offer experimental courses in commercial history and in industrial history should suffer a reaction, because these courses of study are not proving satisfactory in actual experience, which demonstrates the inadequacy of the text-books in filling the need of a general historical background for such courses. One illustration came under my observation recently. An attempt was made to offer a course of industrial United States history with a standard book on the subject as a text, in a technical school of high standing. It was thought that such a course would be better adapted to the needs of the pupils of such a school. The experiment was soon abandoned, for the reason before mentioned, and a straight course in American history was substituted. Furthermore, it is doubtful whether the business or mechanical efficiency derived by a boy or girl from a specialized course is actually of any greater value than that derived from the study of one of the accepted units of history, inasmuch as the latter, when well taught, includes the general economic and social aspects of history. Moreover, the knowledge and training derived from any school course of study should aim to fit for the intelligent citizenship of the successful business man or woman or of those engaged in the industrial arts, and an appreciation and understanding of political history is as valuable to this end as the knowledge of the history of commerce and of in-

dustry. Civics and economics have their established place as additional courses in standard schools, and commercial geography and commercial law may be offered in commercial courses as supplemental to the history work and not as substitutions for it. One modification in the generally accepted courses in history may eventually come about. The ancient, English and medieval and modern European history may give way under the pressure for other work to a two-year European history course. But the change will not be satisfactory if the total amount of subject-matter offered for study remains the same as in the past and the time for its assimilation by the pupil is merely cut from three years to two. Much of the criticism aimed at the study of history in the secondary schools—as it comes from administrative officials and from pedagogical experts—and much of the dissatisfaction felt by the history teachers themselves, is due to the expansion for many years past of the scope and amount of the subject-matter to be taught without a corresponding increase in the student's capacity for work or his ability to assimilate knowledge. In fact, the general average of intellectual ability in a school is probably lowered as high school education ceases to attract only the most promising, and the modern tendencies in home, social and even school life seem to tend toward a dissipation of the pupil's energy rather than to increase the capacity for sustained mental effort. I am not advocating a lowering of the standard of scholarship, but I insist that all the tendencies mentioned unite to give us superficial results. We aim to teach too many things, and the pupil does not get accurate knowledge or thorough understanding of that which he studies.

Though the European history courses remain intact, therefore, they should be based upon a selection of topics throughout, their scope to be limited to the ability of the pupils to assimilate thoroughly in a given time. Certainly if a two-year European history course eventuates, then this selection of topics becomes a more pressing necessity if we are to strengthen the study of history both as to the accuracy of knowledge and the thoroughness of understanding attained. Unless the topics are more limited than the number we now include, the results will be superficial whether we regard one or another of the various aims in teaching history. The bases upon which we make such a selection should include:

1. The development of each nation along lines that mark the chief characteristics of its civilization. Particularly those contributions made to art and architecture, literature, science, politics, commerce and industry that are permanent and that have become a part of our own heritage.

2. The general European movements that mark a change in the standard of living, or an advance in religious, intellectual and commercial freedom.

3. The natural struggle of each of the various peoples of Europe

to establish a national existence and the influences that have tended to perpetuate the international conflicts incident thereto.

CHARLES H. FISHER, West Chester Normal School, Pa.: During the last few years all of the subjects of the secondary school have been subject to close examination, especially from the standpoint of educational values. We are scrutinizing all the traditional subjects from the viewpoint of immediate and ultimate aims in education. This has been forced upon us for two reasons: 1. By the enormous growth of the high school population, who come from all classes of society, and represent a great variety of educational needs. 2. By a recent movement to develop educational theory on the basis of scientific certainty. Most educational practice in the secondary school is based upon what are called faith aims, many of which are never realized. The dogma and tradition that underlie most high school teaching have barely felt the influence of the scientific method.

Such subjects as mathematics and the classics, which formerly were required of every student, and which have been on the defensive for some time, show a falling off in student registration. Recently the courses in science have grown relatively less popular.

On the contrary history has steadily gained. To quote from Judd's "Psychology of High School Subjects," "there is evidently a great belief on the part of school authorities and students alike that history serves, in a very important way, the interests of broad, general education."

The attitude taken here to-day by the preceding speakers is decidedly apologetic. It is the same thing that we have heard for some time from the teachers of mathematics and the classics. A defense is offered for history as a subject from the standpoint of an interest in the subject for its own sake, its disciplinary values, making the past real for the sake of the present, and the opportunity it affords for social education and training in citizenship. It is my firm belief, based upon the aims of secondary education, that the high school is under little obligation to teach history for its own sake. History for its own sake is a purely cultural aim that may have some place in college education, but in the high school it certainly cannot be a fundamental aim. If the intellectual interest in history for its own sake is to be met, it must be by elective and not prescribed courses.

Instead of asking the question, why teach history, I prefer to look at this subject from another viewpoint. I ask what are the aims of secondary education and what does history have to offer that no other subject can possibly offer in the furtherance of these educational aims. Now I no longer have an interest in the subject as such. I care not what defense you make of history as a subject. My main interest is in the needs of the pupil and the

demands of society. What are the pupil's interest, his points of contact, what can he understand, what are his needs? On the other hand what is society demanding and what will it demand of its citizens? We have had enough analysis of the adolescent to be able to understand him and his needs. And on the other hand we are able to analyze the demands of society in such a way as to give us definite aims of education in a subject like history.

The present tendency in secondary education to put the formal subjects like mathematics and the foreign languages on the elective list will most likely continue to find favor. On the other hand certain things in science, English and social science, including history, will be prescribed. What ought to be prescribed in history? Only those things common to history that will promote educational aims.

Because of its rich human content history doubtless has some things that ought to be the common possession of all men and women who are to be citizens of a twentieth century democracy. History for its own sake, as well as special forms of history, such as commercial and industrial history, ought to be placed on the elective list with mathematics and the foreign languages.

At present there seems to be a strong tendency to look at history from the standpoint of social science. From this standpoint only such history is useful as will make the present intelligible. It seems to me that this is only one way of approach, and it may be the best way. But if we exclude all material except that which will make the present intelligible we shall omit much that ought to be useful in promoting fundamental aims.

There is the emotional or fellow feeling side of history. The dramatic, human interest phase of history will always make its appeal. Human action is determined largely by emotions. The way we feel about an historical event is far more important than an intellectual interest in what actually happened. Closely allied to the human interest phase of history is the impressionistic phase from which we may derive our ideals of heroism, patriotism, loyalty, courage, justice, national integrity, and so on. From the standpoint of the science of history I realize that the views expressed here have little value.

To quote from Dr. Snedden's article in the *History Teachers' Magazine*, November, 1914, "There is a sense, indeed, in which the more scientific our history, as such, becomes, the less is it available for purposes of high school education." Again I quote from Judd's "Psychology of High School Subjects," "It is inherent in history, as a subject, that it stimulates all sorts of human judgments. The student's imagination is kindled by the accounts given of human activities, and his sympathies are aroused in spite of every effort that he may make to keep his mind open for an impartial judgment. The effort of the historian, therefore, to describe his-

tory as a scientific subject, is likely to fail to persuade an elementary student whose human sympathies are aroused by the narrative which he reads."

It is this human interest side of history that accounts for the place history maintains in our secondary schools. Too often the teaching of history has been just as formal as the so-called formal subjects. If it were not for the human interest in the subject it would show a falling off instead of a gain in registration.

This phase of history is one of the distinct contributions the subject has to make to the furtherance of educational aims and we cannot afford to ignore it.

As to the units of history to be required, it seems to me that the periods of history that are most rich in content from the standpoint of the furtherance of our aims are the units to be emphasized. I believe that the periods outlined by Professor Young are in the main the ones that will meet our requirement. But from my standpoint it is not necessary to go back to the beginning and proceed logically in the development of the periods. History that begins at a chronologically remote point makes the application to the present an extremely difficult part of the work, says Professor Judd in substance in his recent work on Psychology. The logical development proceeds from a belief in the subject for the sake of the subject. It is a fundamental pedagogical error to work from the beginning. We ought to proceed from the tangible and the approachable in the pupil.

This does not mean that I do not believe in a sequence of events and periods. On the contrary it is very essential for the pupil, if he is to control his thinking, to have clearly defined periods of history. These periods must serve as pigeon-holes for the classification and the inter-relation of knowledge. The old Graphic Chart that gave a pictured stream of events has a suggestion here. One could make a chart not in centuries but in periods of rather large units, such as the Periclean age, the age of Augustus, the Elizabethan age, the Reformation, the period of discoveries and explorations. This chart could be kept constantly before the pupils and as this and that important fact came up it could be classified. In time the pupil ought to have a sequence of events and periods that would be real because it had grown out of his own experience.

I realize that my point of view involves no easy task. We ought to have a number of progressive secondary teachers who would be willing to experiment. I am frank to say that I believe the secondary teacher of history can expect little help from the college or university teachers of history. We ought to seek the aid of men, it may be professors of education in our universities, who see our problem as a unity and have no interest in any one subject as such.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE BUSINESS MEETING

The annual Spring meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland was called to order in the Donovan Room, at Johns Hopkins University, at 11.30 on Saturday morning, April 17, 1915, by the President, Professor Henry Johnson, of Teachers College in Columbia University.

The following committees were appointed:

On Nominations—Dr. William Fairley, Commercial High School, Brooklyn; Miss Margaret Englar, Western High School, Baltimore; Professor R. W. Kelsey, Haverford College.

On Resolutions—Dr. A. C. Bryan, High School of Commerce, New York; Professor John H. Logan, Rutgers College; Miss Mary E. Clark, George Biddle High School.

On the Treasurer's Report—Supervisor Lida Lee Tall, Baltimore Schools; Miss Olive E. Heckles, West Hoboken, N. J.; Mr. R. G. Leonard, Atlantic City High School.

TREASURER'S REPORT FOR THE YEAR ENDING APRIL, 1915

RECEIPTS

April, 1914.	Balance on hand	\$77.46
	Dues paid during the year	245.70
	Sale of Proceedings	16.14
		\$339.30

EXPENDITURES

Expenses of local committees	\$19.50
Printing	48.38
Postage	25.00
Clerical assistance	10.00
Balance on hand, in the Corn Exchange Bank, University Branch	236.42
	\$339.30

\$100 has been appropriated to the History Teachers Magazine.
\$100 has been appropriated to the Committee on Historical Material.

\$25 has been set aside for the use of the Committee on Training Teachers.

\$225

\$11.42 unappropriated balance.

REPORT OF THE AUDITING COMMITTEE

We have examined the accounts of the treasurer for the year 1914-1915, showing a balance of \$236.42 on deposit in the University Branch of the Corn Exchange Bank in New York City, and find the accounts to be correct.

LIDA LEE TALL,
OLIVE E. HECKLES,
RAYMOND G. LEONARD.

THE REPORT OF THE COUNCIL

The Council reported an invitation from the Drexel Institute for the Association to join with the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland and other associations in meeting at Drexel Institute in Philadelphia on November 26 and 27, 1915, which invitation had been accepted.

It was reported that the Spring meeting in 1916 would probably be held in New York City or the vicinity of New York City. Attention was called to the fact that while the Association numbers 313 members, having increased 18 during the year, the number should and could be greatly increased by active interest on the part of each member.

Provision was made for the publication of a pamphlet on the training of history teachers, which Dr. William Fairley, Chairman of the Association's Committee on this subject, would edit. A publishing house had offered to publish the pamphlet without cost, but adding at the back a few pages of advertisements.

The Council recommended that the Association join with the American Historical Association, the New England History Teachers Association, and others in supporting the History Teachers Magazine, which has been so ably edited in the interest of the teaching of history. It was voted that \$100 be appropriated for this purpose, and the Treasurer was authorized to pay this amount to the management of the magazine upon information that a sufficient amount had been subscribed by others to insure the successful conduct of the magazine.

The Council reported regret that some of the standing committees of the Association seemed unable to make progress with their work, and the hope that they might renew their energies.

The Council urged members of the Association to contribute to its success by suggesting topics for discussion, recommending that persons be elected to offices in the Association who are interested in its work, and in other ways which may occur to members. Such

recommendations may be sent to the Secretary or to other members of the Council.

The Committee on Nominations reported in favor of the election of the following officers, which report was duly adopted: President, Professor John M. Vincent, Johns Hopkins University; Vice-President, Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School; Secretary-Treasurer, Professor Edgar Dawson, Hunter College; two members of the Council, Miss Lida Lee Tall, Baltimore City Schools, and Professor W. E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania.

The Committee on Resolutions reported as follows: Resolved, that the Association express its appreciation of the generous hospitality of Johns Hopkins University, and the kind offices of the members of the student body; that particular thanks be expressed to the local committee consisting of Professor Magoffin, Mr. Kaye, and Dean Lord; and that the Association is deeply grateful to the American Book Company for continuing to publish the proceedings of the Association.

The Committee on Geography and History regret that the work of the committee has been halted by unforeseen demands upon the Chairman. The work on the geography requirements of the course in Modern History, however, has been resumed and will be pushed to completion as soon as possible. It is felt that the geographical relations of the present war should be included in a final report.

The Committee on College Entrance Examination Board's Examinations in History and Civics has held no formal meetings.

The contentions made in the last report, namely,

(1.) That history has thus far not received proper recognition in the curriculum of secondary schools, particularly in those which prepare for college; that the subject is not given sufficient time; and

(2.) That properly prepared teachers are not regularly employed, is still true. We believe that there is, however, a slow improvement in both these directions, though definite results are not yet apparent.

The Committee feels that another cause of weakness in the results of the examinations is slowly making itself apparent, namely, that the requirements in history are so indefinite, and so vast in extent, that it is difficult for the examiner, the teacher, and the student to get together on common ground. This difficulty has led recently to action on the part of the College Entrance Examination Board.

The Board has requested the American Historical Association to take steps in the direction of more closely defined history courses. A committee has been appointed, with Professor W. S. Ferguson, of Harvard, as chairman, and other committees have been appointed in sectional associations, including our own section with Dr. Sullivan as chairman.

CONSTITUTION

Article I. Name and Purpose

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland." Its purpose shall be twofold: first, to advance the study and teaching of history and government through discussion and publication and, secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history.

Article II. Membership

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. Officers

The officers shall be a president, a vice-president, a secretary (who shall also act as treasurer), and a council, consisting of the foregoing officers, two members elected by the Association, the ex-presidents of the Association, and one delegate from each local conference recognized by the Association. These officers, except the delegates and ex-presidents, shall be elected by ballot at each regular Spring meeting of the Association. In the Council shall be vested the general direction of the affairs of the Association.

Article IV. Meetings

The annual meetings of the Association shall be held at the time and place annually designated by the Council.

Article V. Annual Dues

The membership fee shall be \$1.00, payable at the time of the annual meeting.

Article VI. Amendments

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given at the call for the meeting.

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LIST OF MEMBERS

- | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Abbe, Mrs. Robert, | City History Club, | New York City. |
| Abel, Annie Heloise, | Smith College, | Northampton, Mass. |
| Adams, Charles E., | Polytechnic Institute, | Baltimore, Md. |
| Adriance, Robert I., | 247 William St., | East Orange, N. J. |
| Albert, Grace, | Miss Shipley's School, | Bryn Mawr, Pa. |
| Alden, Margaret, | 1514 Jacob St., | Troy, N. Y. |
| Ale, Ida G., | 319 So. Olden St., | Trenton, N. J. |
| Allison, William H., | Colgate University, | Hamilton, N. Y. |
| Ames, H. V., | University of Pennsylvania, | Philadelphia, Pa. |
| Amerman, Jean K., | | Moravia, N. Y. |
| Anderson, Bingley, | The Misses Masters' School, | Dobbs Ferry, N. Y. |
| Anderson, Grace E., | Miss Beard's School, | Orange, N. J. |
| Andrews, Ada M., | 3305 Windsor Hill Road, | Baltimore, Md., |
| Andrews, Elizabeth A., | | Merion, Pa. |
| Annabel, Caroline A., | 311 Montgomery St., | Syracuse, N. Y. |
| Arnold, Isabel, | Plainfield Seminary, | Plainfield, N. J. |
| Arthur, L. Louise, | 515 Lexington Ave., | New York City. |
| Avery, F. B., | 138 West Seneca St., | Syracuse, N. Y. |
| Bacon, Edna L., | 108 Second Ave., | Newark, N. J. |
| Bacon, Georgia F., | 537 West 121st St., | New York City. |
| Bailets, George F., | Middle Township High School, | Cape May Court House,
N. J. |
| Bailey, H. H., | | Farmington, Me. |
| Baldwin, George E., | Vassar College, | West Hebron, N. Y. |
| Baldwin, James, | Knox School, | Poughkeepsie, N. Y. |
| Bancroft, Mary L., | School of Pedagogy, | Tarrytown, N. Y. |
| Barnard, J. Lynn, | State Normal School, | Philadelphia, Pa. |
| Barnes, E. S., | High School, | Geneseo, N. Y. |
| Barrick, Willina, | | Jersey City, N. J. |
| Basette, Alfred S., | Morris High School, | Schoharie, N. Y. |
| Bates, A. B., | Columbia University, | New York City. |
| Beard, Charles A., | Temple University, | Philadelphia, Pa. |
| Beardslee, Sara E., | High School of Commerce, | New York City. |
| Beatman, A. S., | | Livingston, N. J. |
| Bedell, I. M., | 141 West 104th St., | New York City. |
| Beeckman, Florence L., | Chestnut Hill Academy, | Chestnut Hill, Pa. |
| Bensinger, Allan R., | | Utica, N. Y. |
| Bibbins, F. E., | 122 East 9th St., | Plainfield, N. J. |
| Biddle, Harold F., | | Tarrytown, N. Y. |
| Bigelow, Blanche T., | Manheim, | Atlantic City, N. J. |
| Biggins, May K., | Hunter High School, | New York City. |
| Boesé, Eleanor, | 1704 Pacific Ave., | Atlantic City, N. J. |
| Bonsall, Anna S., | 211 Carlton Ave., | Brooklyn, N. Y. |
| Brady, Teresa, | Western High School, | Washington, D. C. |
| Brewer, Margaret H., | 320 West 83d St., | New York City. |
| Bridgman, Anne T., | Horace Mann School, | New York City. |
| Briggs, Elizabeth, | High School, | Somerville, N. J. |
| Brown, E. G., | New York University, | New York City. |
| Brown, M. S., | College for Women, | Pittsburgh, Pa. |
| Brownson, Mary W., | 500 Fifth Ave., | New York City. |
| Brush, W. Franklin, | | |

Bryan, Alfred C.,	High School of Commerce,	New York City.
Bryant, Myrton A.,	Plaza Building,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Buchanan, Mary,	439 Bellevue Ave.,	Trenton, N. J.
Burch, Henry R.,	High School for Boys,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Burchard, Louise,	High School,	Schenectady, N. Y.
Burnett, Ethel M.,	Swarthmore College,	Swarthmore, Pa.
Burr, G. L.,	Cornell University,	Ithaca, N. Y.
Butler, Arthur P.,	Morristown School,	Morristown, N. J.
Byrnes, Clara,	80 St. James Pl.	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Cairnes, Laura J.,	Western High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Campbell, Elsie,	97 Fairview Ave.,	Plainfield, N. J.
Campbell, James O.,	Westminster College,	New Wilmington, Pa.
Capen, Louise I.,		High Bridge, N. J.
Carpenter, Leonora E.,	Eastern High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Carroll, Elizabeth M.,	Arundell School,	Baltimore, Md.
Castle, E. H.,		Brookfield Center, Conn.
Chandor, Valentine L.,	Charlton School,	New York City.
Chapin, Nellie P.,	St. Agatha's School,	New York City.
Cheyney, E. P.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Clark, Belle F.,	148 Maplewood Ave.,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Clark, Mary E.,	George Biddle High School,	Cecilton, Md.
Cleary, Margaret M.,	Carroll Robbins Training	
	School,	Trenton, N. J.
Clifford, Wesley N.,	Southern High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Cockram, Edith M.,	35 Lincoln Ave.,	Trenton, N. J.
Coffin, Mrs. Elizabeth F.,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Colburn, Mary C.,	82 Orange St.,	Irvington, N. J.
Conner, Frances S.,	Scranton High School,	Scranton, Pa.
Conover, Louana,	State Model School,	Trenton, N. J.
Convery, Mary T.,	Columbus School,	Trenton, N. J.
Cooley, Henry S.,	247 Harrison Ave.,	Jersey City, N. J.
Corbin, Sarah E.,	High School,	Atlantic City, N. J.
Corlies, J. Archibald,	29 East Park St.,	Newark, N. J.
Croan, Diodona A.,	505 First St.,	Greenport, N. Y.
Cuddebach, Anna M.,	High School,	Plainfield, N. J.
Dakin, Margaret,	Friends' School,	Haverford, Pa.,
Dann, Matthew L.,	Richmond Hill High School,	New York City.
Darnell, Alice C.,	Friends' Academy,	Locust Valley, L. I.
Davis, Mabel,	High School,	Long Branch, N. J.
Davis, Wayne E.,	Mercersburg Academy,	Mercersburg, Pa.
Dawson, Edgar,	Hunter College,	New York City.
Delliker, Helen M.,	170 West State St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Denton, Alice L.,	115½ Thomas St.,	Utica, N. Y.
Deshel, Morris C.,	DeWitt Clinton High School,	New York City.
Dickinson, Florence,	196 East 205th St.,	New York City.
Dilks, Clara Gilbert,	Girls' High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Dougherty, Philip,	309 Dolphin St.,	Baltimore, Md.
Douglas, Mrs. Herrald,	18 High St.,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Douthett, Walter R.,	High School,	Bloomfield, N. J.
Dowd, Mary A.,		East Syracuse, N. Y.
Drew, W. W.,	1806 Ave. Q,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Dunn, Grace A.,	233 Perry St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Dwyer, Elsie M.,	633 Valley Road,	Montclair, N. J.
Dynes, Sarah A.,	State Normal School,	Trenton, N. J.
Eaton, Margaret C.,	William Penn High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Ellery, Eloise,	Vassar College,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Elliott, Ruth,	Truell Court,	Plainfield, N. J.
Ellis, Marjorie,		Maywood, N. J.

Englar, Margaret,	Western High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Evans, Jessie C.,	William Penn High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Ewing, E. G.,	Franklin High School,	Reisterstown, Md.
Faber, Charlotte A.,	East High School,	Rochester, N. Y.
Fairchild, J. R.,	American Book Co.,	New York City.
Fairley, William,	Commercial High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Fay, Mary L.,	Misses Kirk's School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Ferguson, Arthur H.,	North High School,	Syracuse, N. Y.
Ferry, Nellie P.,	Miss Sayward's School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Fidelis, Sister M.,	Mount St. Agnes College,	Mt. Washington, Md.
Fisher, Charles H.,	Normal School,	Westchester, Pa.
Foote, A. E.,	Training School,	Jamaica, L. I.
Foote, Henrietta M.,	Free Academy,	Rome, N. Y.
Foote, Edmund W.,	93 Lincoln St.,	Montclair, N. J.
Ford, Grace P.,	14 West 127th St.,	New York City.
Ford, U. W.,	Peddle Institute,	Hightstown, N. J.
Freeland, M. Frances,	State Normal School,	Trenton, N. J.
Freeman, Sara H. M.,	97 Engle St.,	Englewood, N. J.
Frick, Mary G.,	557 West End Ave.,	New York City.
Furman, Catherine W.,	430 Princeton Ave.,	Trenton, N. J.
Galloway, Ida G.,	Washington Irving High School,	New York City.
Gambrill, J. M.,	Columbia University,	New York City.
Gaskill, Lois E.,	99 Livingstone St.,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Gere, Helen E.,		Solvay, N. Y.
Gibbons, Alice Newman,	East High School,	Rochester, N. Y.
Giltner, E. E.,	418 West 118th St.,	New York City.
Goertner, Mrs. Rose,	307 West 98th St.,	New York City.
Gonzaza, Sister,	St. Mary's Cathedral,	Trenton, N. J.
Goodwin, W. Grant,	Curtis High School,	New York City.
Green, George M.,	High School,	Bound Brook, N. J.
Greene, Louise K.,	27 Hillside Ave.,	Montclair, N. J.
Gregory, Edith H.,	Walnut Lane School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Haesler, Louise H.,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Haggett, B. S.,	707 Fourth Ave.,	Asbury Park, N. J.
Haight, Carlton S.,	1426 Clinton Ave.,	New York City.
Hall, Mary A.,	597 West End Ave.,	New York City.
Hallowell, Harold A.,	High School,	Wilmington, Del.
Ham, Charles,	DeWitt Clinton High School,	New York City.
Hance, Isabel,	53 Lincoln Ave.,	Dover, N. J.
Harrison, M. Ella,	Western High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Haskins, Theresa H.,	299 Sherman St.,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Hayes, Carlton M.,	Columbia University,	New York City.
Heckles, Olive E.,	151 Palisade Ave.,	West Hoboken, N. J.
Hedge, Louise J.,	1453 Glenwood Road,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Heidenis, Miriam B.,	348 West 55th St.,	New York City.
Herrick, C. A.,	Girard College,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Hewitt, C. L.,	Central High School,	Syracuse, N. Y.
Hickman, Emily,	Wells College,	Aurora, N. Y.
Higby, Chester P.,	501 Coleman Ave.,	Fairmont, W. Va.
Hilliard, Marion P.,	High School,	Jersey City, N. J.
Hirsch, Arthur H.,		Collegeville, Pa.
Hodgdon, F. C.,	70 Fifth Ave.,	New York City.
Hollstein, S. H.,	2929 North Calvert St.,	Baltimore, Md.
Holt, Lucius H.,	West Point Academy,	West Point, N. Y.
House, Lolabel,	Erasmus Hall High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Howe, Samuel B.,	South Side High School,	Newark, N. J.
Howell, Louise W.,		Ridley Park, Pa.

Huff, Charles F.,	High School,	Asbury Park, N. J.
Hughes, A. W.,	Mackenzie School,	Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
Hughes, Sara M.,	215 South Maple St.,	Ridgewood, N. J.
Hull, C. H.,	Cornell University,	Ithaca, N. Y.
Hull, W. I.,	Swarthmore College,	Swarthmore, Pa.
Hummer, Agnes B.,	261 Highland Ave.,	Trenton, N. J.
Hunt, M. Berna,	High School,	Chatham, N. Y.
Hunter, Lucy B.,	National Cathedral School,	Washington, D. C.
Hunting, W. H.,		So. Framingham, Mass.
Hutchinson, Helen R.,	High School,	Trenton, N. J.
Irvin, Spencer P.,	Lincoln School,	Trenton, N. J.
Jewell, Marion,		Atlantic City, N. J.
Jobe, Mary L.,	Hunter High School,	New York City.
Johnson, Henry,	Columbia University,	New York City.
Johnston, Martha T.,	High School,	Paterson, N. J.
Johnston, S. Edna,	Walnut Lane School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Kaye, P. L.,	City College,	Baltimore, Md.
Kelley, F. B.,	City History Club,	New York City.
Kelsey, R. W.,	Haverford College,	Haverford, Pa.
Knapp, Annie M.,	Richmond Hill High School,	New York City.
Knowlton, Daniel C.,	Central High School,	Newark, N. J.
Koehler, Ruth M.,	52 Palisade Road,	Elizabeth, N. J.
Kollock, Margaret R.,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Latane, Edith,	Mary Baldwin Seminary,	Staunton, Va.
Lawrence, Antoinette,	High School,	Jamaica, L. I.
Lawson, Leonard A.,	Upsala College,	Kenilworth, N. J.
Lease, Frank W.,	High School,	Salem, Ohio.
Lentz, E. Marie,	422 Willow Ave.,	Altoona, Pa.
Leonard, R. G.,	High School,	Atlantic City, N. J.
Luetscher, George D.,	High School,	Jamaica, L. I.
Lewis, Ernest D.,	155 West 65th St.,	New York City.
Lingelbach, W. E.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Little, Sophia E.,	174 East 71st St.,	New York City.
Littlefield, Cora M.,	Normal School,	New Platz, N. Y.
Logan, J. H.,	Rutgers College,	New Brunswick, N. J.
Lord, Eleanor L.,	Goucher College,	Baltimore, Md.
Loube, Herbert D.,	26 Madison Ave.,	Jersey City, N. J.
Luqueer, Frederic L.,	86 Marlborough Road,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
McCamant, Catherine,	High School,	Pottsville, Pa.
McClelland, Mary A.,	State Normal School,	Albany, N. Y.
McClosky, Mary Lee,	High School,	Long Branch, N. J.
Mace, W. H.,	Syracuse University,	Syracuse, N. Y.
MacGregor, M. Isabel,	Free Academy,	Elmira, N. Y.
Mackenzie, James C.,	Mackenzie School,	Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
Mackey, Ebenezer,	Superintendent of Schools,	Trenton, N. J.
McKinley, Albert E.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
McKinley, Edna M.,	Central High School,	Syracuse, N. Y.
MacLear, Anne B.,	Hunter College,	New York City.
MacMahon, Ida,	1111 Greenwood Ave.,	Trenton, N. J.
Madden, Frances,	70 Bedford Road,	Schenectady, N. Y.
Madeira, Lucy,	Sidwell's Friends Select	
	School,	
Mallette, Metta E.,	Centennial School,	Washington, D. C.
Mann, Margaret B.,	853 Union St.	Trenton, N. J.
Martin, Harry Wheeler,	520 West 184th St.	Schenectady, N. Y.
Martin, Sarah W.,	109 Jackson Ave.,	New York City.
Massinger, Elizabeth W.,	1806 Tioga St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Mead, Nelson P.,	City College,	Philadelphia, Pa.
		New York City.

Meadowcroft, Chas. W.,	4702 Large St.,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Melchior, D. Montfort,	Girard College,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Merrill, George A.,	253 Park St.,	Hackensack, N. J.
Messick, C. P.,	High School,	Trenton, N. J.
Morrey, William T.,	Morris High School,	New York City.
Myers, William Starr,	Princeton University,	Princeton, N. J.
Norris, Mary R.,	Highland Hall,	Holidaysburg, Pa.
North, Mary,	High School,	Montclair, N. J.
Northrop, Amanda C.,	Hunter College,	New York City.
Northwood, Bertha,	227 Tyler St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Noyes, H. H.,	Macmillan Co.,	New York City.
O'Brien, Elizabeth M.,	131 West 6th St.,	Oswego, N. Y.
Osgood, Ellen L.,	17 Myrtle Ave.,	Plainfield, N. J.
Ott, Mary C.,	323 North Market St.,	Frederick, Md.
Packard, F. L.,	High School,	Montclair, N. J.
Pahlow, Edward W.,	Lawrenceville School,	Oswego, N. Y.
Paine, F. H.,	285 Quincy St.,	Lawrenceville, N. J.
Park, Anna,	High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Parmenter, Eleanor,	State Normal School,	White Haven, Pa.
Pearson, H. C.,	Horace Mann School,	Trenton, N. J.
Peterson, A. Everett,	Morris High School,	New York City.
Phillips, J. C.,	High School for Boys,	New York City.
Price, Blanche D.,	Commercial High School for	Philadelphia, Pa.
	Girls,	
Price, Mary P.,	Germantown High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Pugh, Alexander L.,	High School of Commerce,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Puig, Louise M.,	Manual Training High School,	New York City.
Pulschen, Louise A.,	49 Meadow Lane,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Quimby, Mary A.,	High School,	New Rochelle, N. Y.
Quinlan, Grace M.,	2007 Bedford Ave.,	Berwyn, Pa.
Ranft, Charles F.,	Polytechnic Institute,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Rapp, Paul,	492 Third Ave.,	Baltimore, Md.
Reilly, Susan A.,	1115 West State St.,	New York City.
Renninger, Warren,	Central High School,	Trenton, N. J.
Rex, Percival T.,	Friends' Central School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Rice, Winfield L.,	76 Pierrepont St.,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Richards, Kate S.,	High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Richmond, Sarah E.,		Minersville, Pa.
Ricker, Ella V.,	State Normal School,	Glen-Esk Towson, Md.
Risley, A. W.,	703 Hudson Ave.,	Baltimore, Md.
Robinson, J. H.,	Columbia University,	Albany, N. Y.
Rosenberg, Jacob M.,	1325 Franklin Ave.,	New York City.
Sachs, Julius,	Teachers' College,	New York City.
Salmon, Lucy M.,	Vassar College,	New York City.
Sanford, Edwin M.,	37 Green Ave.,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Saurwalt, Alma V.,	High School for Girls,	Madison, N. J.
Schwacke, John H.,	Yeates School Association,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Schuyler, M. Eloise,	High School,	Lancaster, Pa.
Schuyler, L. R.,	City College,	Cape May, N. J.
Scott, Margaret G.,	High School,	New York City.
Scott, Nancy Elnora,	Wilson College,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Sebring, Emma G.,	St. Agatha's School,	Chamberburg, Pa.
Selby, Mary M.,	Preparatory School No. 49,	New York City.
Selmer, G. H.,	109 S. 38th St.,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Skinner, A. W.,		Philadelphia, Pa.
Simpson, Bertha A.,	127 S. 4th St.,	Mexico, N. Y.
Smarogda, Sister,	519 Chestnut Ave.,	Missoula, Mont.
Smith, W. R.,	Bryn Mawr College,	Trenton, N. J.
		Bryn Mawr, Pa.

Snell, Clara E.,
Snowden, Sarah W.,
Snyder, Arrietta,
Spencer, A. L.,
Spencer, C. W.,
Sperry, E. E.,
Spinney, William,
Stevens, Romiett,
Stewart, Mary W.,

Stewart, Sadie B.,
Strong, Solomon C.,
Stryker, Florence E.,
Sullivan, James,
Sweetzer, Channing E.,
Swetland, Roger W.,
Tall, Lida Lee,
Tanner, E. P.,
Taylor, Jane I.,
Terry, Eva.,
Thallon, Ida C.,
Thomas, Alfred D.,
Thompson, Robert Ellis,
Tobin, James L.,
Tremain, Eloise R.,
Tryon, R. M.,
Tuchton, Isabel B.,
VanDyke, Paul,
VerPlanck, Judith C.,
Vincent, J. M.,
Walker, Adam A.,
Walter, Ella C.,
Weeks, M. B.,
Weglein, David,
Welch, Fannie,
Wheeler, Alice M.,
Wheeler, Orville G.,
Whiffen, Edwin T.,
White, Frederick C.,
White, Mary J.,
Whitford, Fanny E.,
Wiener, Lillie M.,
Wildman, Catherine,
Williamson, Louise S.,
Winters, Herbert D.,
Wolfson, Arthur M.,
Wood, Elizabeth C.,
Woodman, Anna S.,
Wyckoff, Harriet E.,
Young, Helen L.,

238 Montgomery St.,
8 Jorvin Pl.,
Central High School,
Princeton University,
Syracuse University,
Henry Holt Co.,
Teachers' College,
Commercial High School for
Girls,
Eastern High School,

Montclair Normal School,
Boys' High School,
Mercersburg Academy,
Peddie Institute,
827 Hamilton Terrace,
Syracuse University,
Wadleigh High School,
6 Valley View Ave.,
Vassar College,
High School,
Central High School,
DeWitt Clinton High School,
139 West Gorgas St.,
University of Chicago,

Princeton University,
Hunter High School,
Johns Hopkins University,
State College for Teachers,
144 Erie St., Westmont,
Hartridge School,
Western High School,
227 Bloomfield Ave.,
High School,
36 West 37th St.,
High School of Commerce,
Morris High School,
St. Timothy's School,

109 East Patrick St.,
Friends' Select School,
38 East Park St.,

Julia Richman High School,
Wadleigh High School,
Kent Pl.,
523 West 121st St.,
Hunter College,

Mexico, N. Y.
Newburgh, N. Y.
Trenton, N. J.
Philadelphia, Pa.
Princeton, N. J.
Syracuse, N. Y.
New York City.
New York City.

Philadelphia, Pa.
Baltimore, Md.
Rahway, N. J.
Montclair, N. J.
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